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NATIONAL AERONAUTICS AND SPACE ADMINISTRATION Goddard Space Flight Center

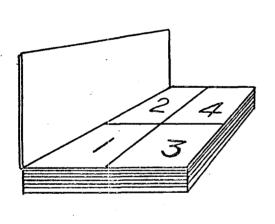
1970 NASA/GSFC Battery Workshop
(Sessions 3 & 4)

Goddard Space Flight Center,
Auditorium, Building 3,
Greenbelt, Maryland.

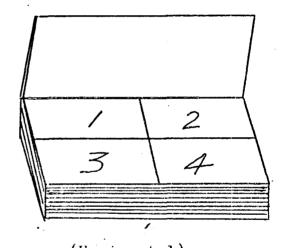
Tuesday, 17 November 1970

NOTE

IN GENERAL THERE ARE FOUR SLIDES PER PAGE. THE SLIDE SEQUENCE IS THE FOLLOWING, REGARDLESS OF BOOK ORIENTATION.



(Vertical)
FIGURE NO. 1



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New Developments

Chairman: W. Billerbeck

Chairman: T. Hennigan

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Separator Seals - Hardware

HALPERT: Good morning, gentlemen.

Starting this third session now I would like to 6∥introduce Tom Hennigan, Chief of the Electrochemical Power 7 Sources Section here at Goddard. He has been actively 8 engaged in battery technology for quite a long time, has considerable experience -- a very capable gentleman. introduce Tom Hennigan.

HENNIGAN: Thank you very much, Gerry.

This morning, as you know, yesterday evening we 13 | had a couple of people who wanted to talk on accelerated 14 testing and before we start on the sepa-ator - seals session here, we would like to have these two talks out of the way. I think they are about five or ten minutes in duration.

Of course, accelerator testing is one thing we 19 sure would like to have every time we make a change in these 20 cells we have to go through the same long life cycle test 21 to compare it with the cells that we already have and today 22 | if you want to convince a project manager to change a cell 23 or change the design of that cell you have to have this long cycle life test to prove to him that the battery is as reliable and as good as the ones that he flew before.

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So our first speaker this morning will be Ed Colston, who will give a rundown on some of the Battelle work -- Design for accelerated testing.

Ed Colston is at Goddard Space Flight Center in the Advanced Power Sources Section.

EDWARD COLSTON: I think it has become clear 7 with time that five or ten years of cycling is too long to wait to find out you have a five or ten-year cell because, 9 for instance, we have some cells already craned now that were put on in 1963 or 1964 which are excellent cells and too bad they don't make those any more.

(Laughter.)

We are starting an updated Crane facility, as 14 you all have heard, and accelerated testing will be a part 15 of it. This is an outline, a very brief outline of some 16 of the philosophy involved and where we stand.

This work has been developing over the past 18 five years. We started out with contracts: RCA, Mauchly 19 Associates, the Crane Stat Group, and finally Battelle. All of their reports were mailed out to the battery distribution list.

There is a tremendous amount of detail in these reports. There is some smoke in parts of them, too. 24 have reached a point where we are going to make some very 25 basic ass-mptions. We are going to assume that all aging

processes involve the physical movement of restructuring of matter.

of the following stresses: Gradients of temperature,
pressure, concentration or voltage. I was very pleased
to hear people talk about concentration gradients yesterday
perhaps causing some type of dendritic growth or potassium
oxide crystals being formed.

These stresses can generally be thought of as thermal, mechanical, chemical, and electrical. We have come up with on electrical quantity a calculatable quantity we call Q. Finally, we have arrived at something we are going to describe as a number which describes the goodness of a battery. We are going to call it Q.

In every case Q reduces to the units of conductance per unit mass, whos per gram. For instance, a value which we will use in the Crane program is sort of an electrical, a voltage quality. This Q_E is calculated by taking one over delta voltage (ΔE) times the hourly rate (n) times the grams per ampere hour (g').

$$Q_{E} = \frac{1}{(\Delta E \cdot n \cdot g!)}$$

Grams per ampere hour, grams are measured.

Ampere hours are manufacturer's rated quantity. This is the voltage quality.

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We will assume that ${\bf Q}$ starts initially high and degrades with time.

We will then take Q_0 -- Q sub zero -- and divide it into the Qs at any point. (i.e. Q/Q_0)

This will give us a number between zero and one which will initially start at one and decrease towards zero. We will pick a point at which we will call it failed. Probably it will be at or close to zero.

It is believed that the rate of decrease of Q can be increased by combinations of the following independent variables.

Note: These aren't necessarily stresses, pure stresses. They are independent variables.

Environmental temperature, amount of overcharge, rate of charge, depth of discharge, rate of discharge, and there are about five others. Among them, vibration, radiation, that sort of aging.

I like these because for the first five I mentioned, four can be held constant while one is varied, whereas if cell voltage is added, it can't be done. They interact.

This Q ratio I spoke of between one and zero is very necessary. Because, one, it allows us to arbitrarily rate the goodness of a cell and, two, because it arbitrarily points in the program, perhaps at Q values

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of 1, 75, .50, and .25, to times at which sample cells should be taken off line and analyzed. During the test program in vivo analysis of live cells will be performed.

To date at Crane, when you take apart a dead cell, you find a mass of gook with about fifteen things wrong with it, and you don't know which caused what and what happened together and what happened later because it was a dead cell and you were running current through it.

The in vivo analysis will be to determine what failure mechanism seemed to be progressing at what rate. This is very important because accelerated testing means that years of life testing have been simulated in a matter of months, and the means in both cases by which it dies is the same. The same failure mechanism or mechanisms must dominate.

We can all take a cell and kill it in several weeks. We can break it. Gross overcharge. Gross reverse charge. Turn it into a balloon. Make it explode. But what we have done to it is different than what it will see in actual life. I don't think that the failure mechanisms are the same. They must be the same for accelerated testing.

From these values we hope to get an idea of
the sort of the failure mechanism or life cycle response
surface, to be able to correlate points. To be able to

Repeaters, Inc. correlate levels when the same failure mechanism exists, the same general type of sensitivity to certain parameters, an acceleration factor may be found say of ten; so that instead of a year of testing, it takes 1.2 months — although ten isn't a big enough acceleration factor; I would like it to be about 100 or more.

It is proposed to use five levels for each stress. It is proposed to use five basic cells per level plus cells for teardown analysis. The full factorial experiment expands quite rapidly. For one stress we need 55 cells. For two stresses we need 260. For three stresses we need 2,165. Et cetera. We cannot do a full factorial experiment for four stresses or more. Therefore, we will do a partial factorial test involving one to two hundred cells.

We will go through it using engineering judgment, this sort of thing, previous Crane data, and what our prediction techniques have come up with, to date, to eliminate and reduce positions. We just can't afford 6,000 cells, especially not built as tightly, uniformly, and with as much manufacturing data as these cells will have to be made.

We will use our three analytical methods, the general categories of analytical methods of the data that have come forward so far. You have seen these pointed up in especially the last Battelle reports, the empirical, statistical and physical ways of looking at data. We will hopefully get

an idea of the aging response surface. We won't do it all but we feel that five points per stress is definitely enough to discover if one failure mechanism predominates. Three points will give that if it's hopefully on a straight line. I don't think that we will discover that -- it's purely temperature dependent like a Arrhenius plot but five should be enough to tell you if you have two.

Dr. Thomas, who acted as our statistician, assures us that it will give us -- we can figure transition energies and basically see if somewhere in the test range we are changing our failure mechanism once. We hope to get years of data in months and as prediction improves, right now our prediction technique, as you have seen in the reports, is fairly good based on less than a thousand cycles they have been able to predict a year, two years, sometimes more, three years, of life based on less than a thousand cycles. And this is with say 95 and 90 and up percent accuracy.

As our prediction improves we hope to accelerate the minimum number of cycles necessary to predict full life. other words, if we determine that with taking data this way and with accurate data that based on 100 cycles, which isn't really fully broken in, a cell which has a hundred cycles, we can predict its relative full life if we can accelerate this hundred cycles into two days and then use this to predict the full life of the cell in effect we will have a very powerful, if you will,

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acceptance test. This is one way of getting meaningful acceptance tests. The ones that I have examined so far are effective 3 on picking infant mortality but beyond that it's very hard to rate good, better, and best over life.

Now finally, my opinion of this work is that it has made some very interesting, unusual, and useful contributions to failure analysis, prediction, and I think that the Battelle report made some, well, basic contributions to the theory of the physical chemistry of aging.

Any questions?

(Applause.)

HENNIGAN: Any questions for Mr. Colston? forget to always give your name and association.

J. L. WEININGER: Weininger, General Electric.

I am sorry I am a little late, so I missed the I'm really not sure whether this is the subject introduction. of accelerated life testing. If it is, I have a few remarks to make and slides.

HENNIGAN: I would like to introduce Dr. Weininger, from General Electric, for a short talk on accelerated testing.

WEININGER: Actually, I got a number of topics I should have liked to discuss a little bit anyway and specifically the business of accelerated life testing would have come at the very end of it.

There is at GE a program sponsored by the Air Force

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on increasing the energy density of nickel positive plates, so this would be very appropriate to discuss now. But what I was particularly interested in was in work which we were doing at our laboratory last, which was the role of additives.

A few remarks seem to be indicated on that but maybe not in this particular point of our discussions.

With regard to accelerated lift testing, I recognize how very important and thorough your testing must be in the framework of what you are doing here but just to put a different point of view on it, I would like to mention some wome work that was done on this program which has a different approach.

And if I could have the first slide --

(Slide.)

The part I was concerned with particularly was the role of additive in the nickel positive active material.

This is just a lift of the periodic table of all the additives that have been put into the nickel positive plate, and without going into details here, we go to the next slide, please.

(Slide.)

The purpose of discussing it in terms of life, accelerated life test is that by having a certain voltage scheme measuring the potential of the nickel positive plate with respect to a reference electrode in the cell we can simulate one single cycle by a triangular voltage step.

Assume now that this is a positive plate which you

And what I

have taken out of a battery. You increase under potentiostatic 1 control: the voltage and let the current take its own value. In that case you will find that you can cycle the plate, or a small sample of the plate, and get some kind of voltage trace like this, always under potentiostatic control, but erratic, going up in voltage and down. 6 7 am suggesting here actually is that you can compress 1,000 cycles of a charge, discharge operation into one weekend. And the battery engineer has a great deal of difficulty to 10 consider this because they asked me actually what C rate 11 were you operating here, and if you consider the C rate by 12 the true definition of it, it is 100 C rate or a 1,000 C rate 13 when you discharge one amperehour cell for one hour you have 14 one C rate.

But when you discharge a ten milliampere-hour cell for ten millihours you don't get a C rate but you still have So what I am just saying is that if you just stop aside for a moment and look at it differently, you can see that you take the current densities at which you operate in an ordinary C rate, take a little sample out of a battery plate, and cycle it and within a few minutes, depending on your sweep rate here, you can get a whole discharge charge cycle.

In our particular case we have done this specifically to test -- I'm coming back now to the additive -- the case of cobalt, where it was found that it is very beneficial to have

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cobalt added to the nickel plate, particularly for the charge acceptance and charge retention of the positive at high temperature, high temperature being 45° C.

Maybe the next slide will show that.

That is just another sweep ratio oscillograph trace. The next one, please.

(Slide.)

Here you see in two normal KOH and six normal KOH what an electrochemically deposited nickel sample will do in two normal and six normal KOH solution. The Q here refers to the charge per square centimeter of electrode. And it shows that relatively more charge over longer periods of time is maintained where cobalt is added to the nickel.

This is generally known in the battery industry, but it's worth mentioning now also, and it's simply to show you that it is possible to have some other accelerated life test. And that's really all I want to say on that subject.

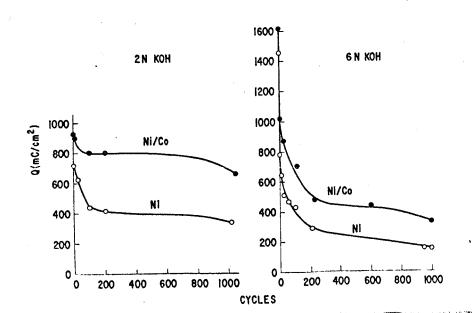
Thank you.

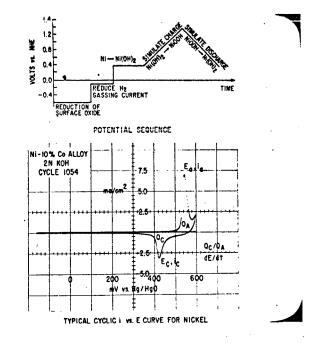
HENNIGAN: We have a question from Ernst Cohn.

COHN: If you really believe that this is a good method for simulating accelerated life testing, do you have any plans for coordinating your sweep method with a true regular life test to see how well they coordinate?

WIENINGER: Well, I'm afraid I'm in the R&D part

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2	Li	Be B						
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5	Rb Ag	Cd		Sn	Sb	Мо		
6	Cs	Ba Hg	RARE EARTH	Pb	Bi	W		





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of this partnership. We have actually looked at the Crane data and tried to see whether we can, at least the cobalt test, whether we can correlate these with what is available in the literature. If you are talking about actual commercial plates that have been tested, there are no such tests available to us, so the answer is essentially negative.

However, I think I would like to try this and right now I am aware of the experimental difficulties I didn't go into right now. What is involved really is if you have a plate, just to punch out a small sample with the plate at a couple of millimeters thick, a sample about one millimeter in diameter and use this as your test electrode, and than all I have to do is to wait for my colleagues to give up one of their huge constant current potentiostats in order to be able to really work at the current levels that are required.

I am aware of what has to be done but it hasn't been done yet.

HENNIGAN: Do we have any further questions?

Sid Gross wanted to say a few words on accelerated testing.

GROSS: I am going to waive it until next year.

HENNIGAN: Yes, you will have more data next year,

(Laughter.)

I'd just like to let the fellow know in the slide

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room that we are starting the regular schedule now. This is the regular setup for slides that we have lined up.

Our next session this morning is going to be on separators, which is a very popular talk around the battery business. Of course one of the problems with picking a separator again is we don't have any real good test to tell us how a separator is going to work in a battery. I will show some data later that some of these wetting tests that you wouldn't even pick these separators for worked quite well in batteries. We don't know how long they are going to work. There are some indications that the physical properties and materials will tell you not to use certain types of separators.

The other problem we have is with supply of these materials. It seems like every once in a while you come across a pretty good one and it seems kind of difficult to get the material again. The fellow went out of that business or he changed the process or something. So pretty much I guess the industry has stuck to the nylon type material, primarily made by the Pellon Corporation, usually referred to as 2505ML, and as long as the temperature is cold, or at zero, we had pretty good success with that separator.

The trend now is to try to find a polypropylene that will also work in the cells for long periods of time.

I don't know if it's going to allow us to raise the temperature in these cells because we are still probably going to

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to have problems with the cadmium migration. I don't think the Pellon will really stop it.

Let's get on to the few speakers we have this morning in the separator area. Our first one is Mr. Gary Lyons, from Howard Textile, who would like to talk about gome nonwover polyamides, the physical and chemical characteristics.

Gary Lyons.

GARY LYONS: Good morning, gentlemen. For those of you that don't know me, my name is Gary Lyons, and I am an officer of Howard Textile Mills, Allied Heat Seal Corporation, and United Processing.

For the past twelve years we have been producers of woven and knitted nylon cloth. We also have made nylon envelopes for use as battery separators, and we have recently produced a new 100 percent polypropylene woven cloth of exceptional high strength and heat resistance, about eight mills thick, and additional sample yardage of these goods will be available very shortly for anyone who is interested.

Since 1969 we have been working with Monsanto Corporation in adopting Cerex for batteries. And in 1970 we were appointed distributors of Cerex to the battery industry.

In recent years the use of man-made fibers in both

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military and industrial applications have increased dramatically. Many different fibers and a multiplicity of fabric constructions are now available. Consequently fabric and fiber constructions for specific end uses are selected after meticulous assessment of their performance properties. of the need for a top performing fiber and new lower cost structures, Monsanto, in 1963 began research on spun bonded materials and this research has culminated in the development and more recently in quantity production of Cerex spun bonded nylon fabric.

Manufactured by an integrated process of fiber spinning and bonding, Gerex is formed from a web of 100 percent nylon, 66 continuous filaments self-bonded at the filament junctions. It contains no adhesive, no sizing, binders, or fabric finishes.

On an equal weight basis, Cerex is the world's strongest nonwoven fabric. It possess all of the high performance attributes of nylon 66 plus the unique features of a specifically engineered spon bonded structure.

> Could I have the first slide, please. (Slide.)

A scanning electron photomicrograph of Cerex at 24 times magnification is in that slide number one. figure there is a network of bonded continuous filaments with genus ranging from three to five. Because of the absence of

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al Reporters, Inc. any external binder it is possible to have a web of uncoated filaments characterized by a high surface area with an abundance of interstices for easy circulation of the electrolyte.

This may not be the case for the staple filament woven where matted areas of fiber and binder diminish surface area.

At this point it is important to note the difference between spun bondeds and the broad class of products nonwovens. Spun bondeds are continuous filament web, web structures, bonded at the filament crossover points. The key word is "continuous filament." The continuous filaments along with strong bonds allows any external force to be propagated throughout the fabric to a significant extent. This causes Gerex to be much stronger than any staple fiber nonwoven.

Could I have slide number two?
(Slide.)

Cerex is also a highly homogeneous structure due to the absence of an external binder. This is particularly evident in slides one and two where the clean network of Cerex filaments is contrasted with slide number two, a staple nonwoven. Where discrete filaments are held together in a contiguous network by globs of binder. The total nonfiberous material content of Cerex is less than one percent. According to Federal spec CCT-191B, Method 2611.

With no finishers or binder systems present

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contamination hazards are reduced.

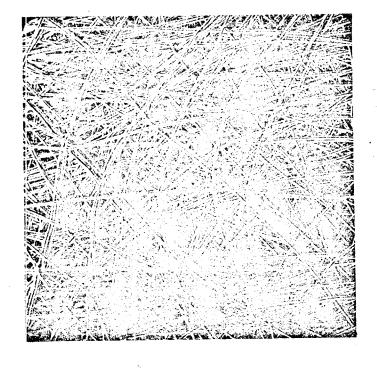
Could I have Table 1, please?

(Slide.)

The weights and typical physical properties of the range of currently made Cerex styles are given in Table 1. Gerex is being analyzed for end use properties specific to batteries which use a potassium hydroxide electrolyte. For this end use a low density material was developed to promote higher electrolyte retention. Specifically electrolyte retention in 30 percent KOH has been increased from approximately 200 to 700 percent with a low density fabric. As expected some sacrifice in the mechanical properties was experienced in going to a lower density fabric as the degree of bonding was reduced. Specifically strip tensile strength for low density fabric averages six pounds per inch for both machine and transverse directions versus 25 pounds per inch for standard fabric. Mullen burst strength still exceeds 50 pounds per square inch. Elongations have been lowered in both directions from 80 to 25 percent.

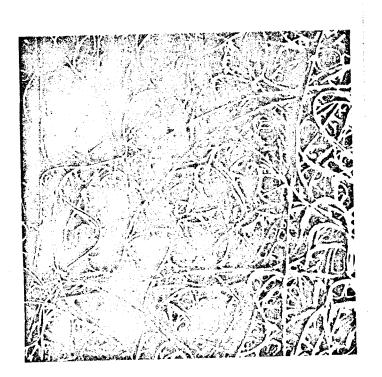
Even with the sacrifice in mechanical properties we believe low density Cerex to be as strong as any staple nonwover used for battery separators.

Although some reduction in wettability has been achieved with a low density fabric further modifications are now being made to improve this property.



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TABLE 1. STANDARD CEREX' SPUNBONDED NYLON—WEIGHTS AND TYPICAL



		25 -	-	• ;	= :	Z	2	Ç	N I	Rí	21	R	2	:
	Thickness, [e]	•	•	•	~ •	• ;	=	2 :	4	2	1 23	8:	R	
PHYSICAL PROPERTIES DATA	Toughness (d) ladds, Br., avg. BD: and ID:	1.6	3.0	3.4	4.6	5.4	8.2	11.2	14.2	17.4	24.0	31.0	7	
	Gab Strength, (c) Bs. org MD* and [D**	•••	52	13	23	22	₹	38	"	83	27	155	192	
	Multen Bussing Strength, (b) Pit.	or O	16	2	23	8	\$	8	2	ž	125	143	153	
	Perme shifty, (2) Chu,/TL' # Chu,/TL' # 0.5 in. H,O	1,400	8	98	740	3	\$5	38	270	210	170	140	110	
		40	90	0.7	0.85	10	5	20	2.5	30	0.4	0.5	6.0	

Recovery from Extension - Elastic recovery's Unitromying interspective or some recovery from Extension - Elastic recovery Sunitromy or (259 - 265 C)
Wething Point - In range 498 -509 F (259 - 265 C)
Color - Brighliness, 75.3; purity, 0.1, dominant wave length, 51.3 m_s (As measured on G. E. Tristimulus Photometer.)

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Thank you. Are there any questions.

(Applause.)

HENNIGAN: Thank you very much, Gary.

MAURER: Maurer, Bell Laboratories.

Can you make spun bonded polypropylene?

LYONS: We can and we probably will. We're working on it now.

HENNIGAN: Thank you, Mr. Lyons.

Do we have another question?

FALIK: Andrew Falik, from Monsanto.

If the market justifies the spunbonded polypropylene we could go commercial. Now it's like any other organic polymer, one of many that we are trying to make in spunbonded. At the present it's not amenable to a spunbonded process, polypropylene.

HENNIGAN: Thank you very much.

Sid Gross of Boeing?

GROSS: Gross of Boeing. My understanding is that nylon, there are many kinds of nylons of different molecular weights and presumably of different stabilities in electrolytes.

What can you say about the differences between spunbonded nylon and other Pellon type nylons in this regard?

LYONS: Well, our spunbonded nylon is a 66 nylon which would have perhaps marginal or even significant greater resistance to degredation in alkaline solution. But pellon,

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I'm not sure, perhaps it's a nylon 6 polymer, so we would expect with the difference in the polymer characteristics a little less resistance to a heavily alkaline solution.

As far as other nylons, there is no other nylon spunbonded being made. We feel as far as resistance goes Cerex would probably have the highest resistance to an alkaline solution of any mylon monwoven being currently made.

HENNIGAN: Are there any more questions on this nylon?

Bob Steinhauer of Hughes?

STEINHAUER: Yes, I would like to ask, we have been concerned about separator degredation and particularly the nylons and hostile formation of carbonate. Would these spunbonded nylons constrasted to the unwoven materials be more resistant? In other words are these binders the things that are breaking down rather than the nylon itself?

FALIK: Pellon advertises, and I believe rightly so, 100 percent polyamide structure. We also advertise 100 percent polyamide structure subject to the solvent, of extractions with water and cloroform plus the ash content which is less than one percent, which I don't think Pellon could exceed that figure either.

I feel that as far as degredation is concerned, it's a question of nylon 66 versus nylon 6 and this would be the only difference in the two materials.

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HENNIGAN: Guy Rampell of General Electric.

RAMPELL: Can you tell me what air permeability range of the commercially produced is at the moment?

FALIK: For our low density material style that we hope will be used in battery separators it ranges from 300 to 350 cubic feet per minute per square foot of fabric at a half-inch water pressure.

RAMPELL: Thank you.

HENNIGAN: Another question here -- Menard of Gould.

MENARD: Do you have any binder in your fabric?

FALIK: There is no binder material in our

fabric. This is to say that if we took a staple nonwoven

and subjected it to a solvent extractions and water extractions

and ash and we took our material, we -- the total amount of

-- there would be nothing in the extractions that would be

representative of any binder.

MENARD: You mentioned about Pellon being 100 percent nylon. They do have the binder which is zinc oxide in there. We ran analysis some years back and I think this is what caused the degredation -- the binder itself, not the nylon fibers.

I don't know if there is anybody here from Pellon who would like to comment on this.

HENNIGAN: I believe that's zinc dloride, isn't it?

1 MENARD: Where does the zinc come from? 2 Do the fellows from Pellon like to say HENNIGAN: 3 anything about that? 4 VAN BEAVER: Van Beaver of Pellon Corporation. 5 binder system is proprietary. I cannot comment on it. But I would like to ask Monsanto a question on the 6 7 binder. 8 (Laughter.) 9 FALIK: It's proprietary. 10 VAN BEAVER: Right. 11 (Laughter.) 12 VAN BEAVER: Then you do have a binder in your 13 system. 14 FALIK: No, sir. 15 VAN BEAVER: No binder whatsoever? 1.5 FALIK: No. 17 HENNIGAN: Sid Gross from Boeing? 18 GROSS: Gross, Boeing. Of particular importance of course is the ability to make separator very uniform and 19 20 very predictable and very consistent. 2 Could you -- do you have any remarks on what performance you have experienced in this regard? 22 23 FALIK: I feel our spunbonded would not be worse 24 than any other commercially nonwoven that is available on the Reporters, Inc. market now. We certainly at this time could not make as

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uniform a material as a woven structure. I don't feel that any nonwoven producer has a plus as far as uniformities are concerned.

I would like to point out we have a big program in measuring uniformity and it is a function of how many samples you take and the area over which they are taken. From this conference perhaps I would like to get an idea of how you would want us to sample uniformity in a battery separator material. Should we take three-inch squares and measure them for density and weight and do a thousand of these within a thousand yards across a 50-inch width, or do we use a six-inch width so if we come up with some variation statistics they could be more meaningful?

HENNIGAN: Could we have the spelling of your name, sir?

FALIK: Yes, it's incorrect on there. It's F-A-L-I-K.

HENNIGAN: Mr. Rampell from GE has some information on degredation of Pellon in KOH. Do you want to say anything?

RAMPELL: You are talking nylon. Hans Kroger, Dr. Krøger ran some permanganate oxidation tests and of course nylon does degrade and oxidize under those conditions. And he also ran 160 degree Fahrenheit storage tests in electrolyte 31 percent electrolyte, and found that -- well, it was almost impossible to find any nylon at the end of the storage period

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which was about six months. And in contrast to that, polypropylenes are about the only materials that survived and also were practically non-oxidizable in the potassium permanganate.

HENNIGAN: I guess you well know when these cells are run at say 40 degrees C in less than a year, there just isn't any separator left. I mean it's completely gone. It's a piece of mush in there with cadmium all mixed in with it. So at 25, it goes, depends on how you used the cell, in two to three years, zero. We had these nylon cells with the nylon in it running for six, going on seven, years.

Gary Lyons?

LYONS: I presume that when you say that there is no nylon left you are referring to nylon other than the Cerex spunbonded? I don't believe that that has disintegrated under heat in any test that you have made.

HENNIGAN: That we made?

LYONS: That have been made.

HENNIGAN: Oh.

Are there any further questions?

Dr. Maurer from Bell?

MAURER: I have a few general comments. We have been doing some accelerated aging studies. Our use mode for cells in many instances is long term overcharge at elevated temperatures. And we have an accelerated test program

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Reporters, Inc. along those lines that I think we will report on at the power sources conference, but it involves several hundred cells at different overcharging rates and temperatures.

Our general feeling is that nylon 6 and also nylon 66 are degraded in oxygen KOH environments, and essentially agreeing with what Guy Rampell has said on nylon in permangarate KOH solution. It's our opinion at Bell Labs that a lpng life cell must not contain any nylon at all.

HENNIGAN: Thank you.

We will go on to our next -- do you have a question over there?

HALPERT: Halpert, Goddard.

I am not sure as to the relationship of the test in the hot KOH and the oxidizing atmosphere as compared with the environment the separator experiences inside the cell. That is, if you take the separator and measure its thickness with a Caty gauge you get 14-15 mil on the maximum loft material, which is the type used inside the OAO type cells. Then, after plates and separator are pressed and the pack inserted into the case, if one determines the room left for the separator we find the thickness may be seven or eight mil.

After a long term cycling we find the plates themselves have increased in thickness, the positive in particular have increased by 5 mil apiece. So we really

WEININGER: I have a few electron micrograms to

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The ridges and striations are artifacts from the slicing of the sample. This one is a polyethylene. The next slide shows a polygropylene.

(Slide.)

Again very small pore sizes. There is a hole there from the slicing, a tear, actually. Next slide please.

(Slide.)

Just because at that time, at the Battery Separator Symposium we were very interested in whatwas considered to be the best alkaline battery separator, the RAI grafted polyethylene. We made one particular electron micrograph on RAI with very high conductivity, and this particular sample had pores also. These are less rounded more gene-like structures are pores in RAI separated, but I don't want to give you the impression that they usually have pores. I only want to demonstrate this particular one because it was very heavily radiated in their process I suppose and pores develop.. I can assure you that all other RAI separators we tested didn't have actual holes of this nature. But even if they had, the pore size is here only on the order of 100 angstroms itself. And that is not necessarily detrimental. In fact when you come to an ion exchange membrane you arrive at the question of what fractional pore sizes of the molecular level of an ion exchange membrane really is.

Now these separators are cheap to make, they are

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show you of the new porous polyethylene membrane, porous polypropylene membrane, also, and all the things of highly cyrstaline polymers of this nature and these polymers are 50 percent porous and have the distinction of having very small average pore size of average of 60 to 100 angstroms.

The first slide shows you a distribution of these pore sizes. This has been actually published in the Journal of Electrochemical Society and also at greater length in the Proceedings of the Battery Separator Symposium at Columbus last spring.

I would to bring it to your attention at this time.

Could I have the first slide, please?

(Slide.)

The next one, please.

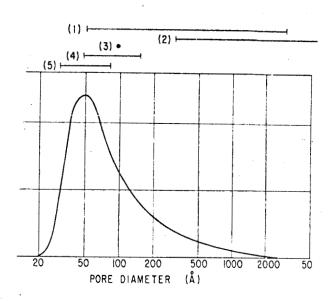
(Slide.)

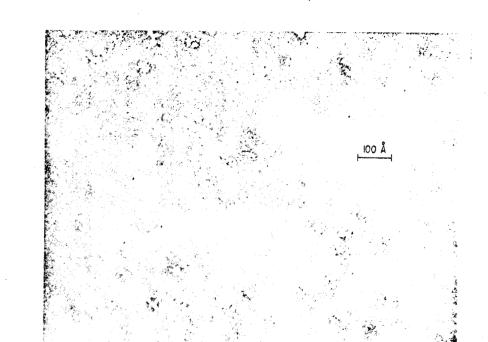
Without going into any details on the methods by
which we established these pore sizes, this is a 50 percent porcus
polyolefin, it has a few large pores, but the majority you can
see are smaller than 100 angstrom in pore size.

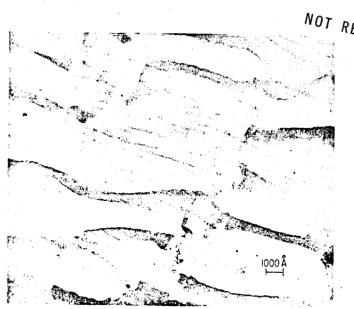
One of the methods of determining these is shown in the next slide.

(Slide.)

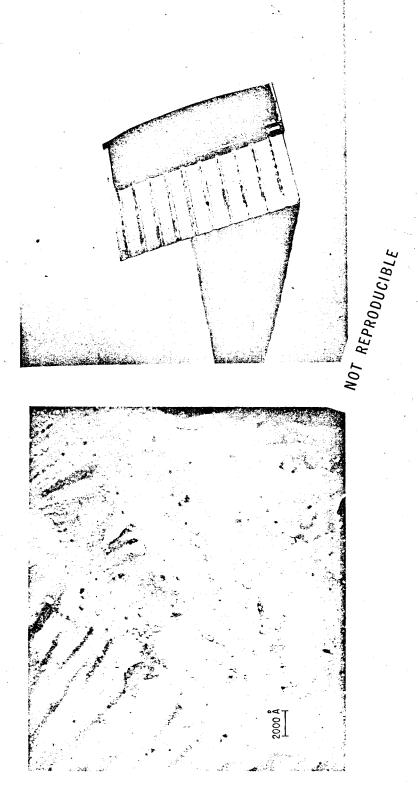
You see an actual electron micrograph of a section of this polymer. Now these little dots or water marks as they appear are actual pores. The largest one there is 200 angstroms.







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100 percent polyethylene. There is no additive to it. As a result they have a peculiar property of being completely hydrophobic. And they will not allow water to come in unless it is placed there in the first place. They can be heat sealed very readily and a number of battery applications and many more that are not related to battery technology.

Whether or not they would be useful in alkaline batteries is a question but I just mention one other perameter, and that is the tortuosity which is about three-to-ten; average tortuosity of seven, let us say. So depending on the thickness you have, you see you decrease your effective conductivity considerably. If you have applications with reasonably low drain, meaning no higher than one or two C, this might be a good alkaline battery separator.

Without question it is very good for a lead acid cell. And the next slide will show you just one example of what is a convention lead acid battery separator, the brown card-board resin impregnated type behind there on which we have a lead plate, positive plate, I believe, which is just slid into a bag made from this material.

That's all. Thank you very much.

HENNIGAN: We had a question in the back there.

FALIK: Andy Falik, Monsanto.

If it's completely hydrophobic material then would you care to comment on its wet-out properties?

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The case of an alkaline system which you WEININGER: have to have in the flooded state or enclosed in a fairly humid atmosphere. In the case of the lead acid cell, the sulphuric acid system, you have, as you look at the diagram SO3H20, you have a number of hydrated compounds which the sulphuric acid is so heavily hydrated that it will not . dry out under any conditions, but there is no detergent or anything else added to it.

HENNIGAN: Van Beaver of Pellon?

VAN BEAVER: Gerry Halpert approximately a week ago cautioned me that there should be no sales pitches made at this conference but I want to clarify two points:

One, Pellon has been marketing spunbond nylon for approximately three years now.

Two, we understand and are fully aware that nylon has limitations in long life and high temperature requirements For this reason we are pursuing and pursued polypropylene for approximately nine year.

Thank you.

HENNIGAN: Well, I would like to get on to our next speaker, who is Mr. Dangel, Mr. Phoenix Dangel from Kendall Company, Fiber Products Division, on nonwoven separators.

DANGEL: Thank you.

Good morning. The Kendall Company manufactures nonwoven fabrics by the staple fiber system as distinguished from

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the continuous filaments that were described earlier.

What I am going to talk about this morning is the selection of textile fibers and fabricating techniques for separator design.

The relatively new art of manufacturing fabrics directly from fibers has permitted a design flexibility not previously available with older techniques. The new class of materials has been termed "nonwoven." The ASTM defines them as follows:

> "Fabrics, nonwoven. A planar structure produced by the bonding or interlocking of textile fibers, or both, normally accomplished by mechanical work, thermal treatments, chemical or solvent action or combinations thereof."

In the usual fabric manufacture that has gone on for ages, fibers are first made into yarn, either by spinning or twisting of short fiber hairs, or by continuous extrusion of infinite length multifilament or monofilament strands. yarns are then either woven or knitted into fabric structures. These have a thickness at least as great as the diameter of the yarn and the porosity is usually a function of the actual spaces between the yarns in the structures.

The first two slides will illustrate what I am talking about.

(Slide.)

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There is a typical woven structure and the next slide (Slide) is a typical knitted structure. All right, you can take the slide off, please.

In the case of the nonwoven fabrics, thickness and pore size are usually more closely related to the diameters of the individual fibers, the number of fibers superimposed on each other -- that is, the thickness of the sheet -- and the processing history of the nonwoven. That is, the moduli of rigidity and elasticity influence the fiber's behavior in the final configuration as it is transformed into a nonwoven.

In fact, it is possible systematically to exploit the chemical and physical natures of the fibers as well as the geometric configuration in the deliverate design of a nonwoven fabric to be used as a separator and electrolyte absorber.

Let us consider the factors involved in the design criteria of a separator for a specific end use.

The first choice must be to select a fiber of proper chemical and physical characteristics. The considerations would include those shown in the next slide.

(Slide.)

Non-solubility and non-reactivity in acidic, basic or organic electrolyte; resistance to oxidation or reduction; swelling or shrinkage in electrolyte; and thermal stability.

Next must be considered the geometric characterics desired in the finished nonwoven fabric. These are shown in

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the next slide.

(Slide.) Here we must consider fabric thickness, pore size and shape; uniformity of pore size distribution; strength in the K and Y directions; and elongation.

Now let us attempt the spatial geometry for this hypothetical end use. Let us assume that we have chosen the proper fiber, having considered all the factors in Table 1. The next decisions must be how to array the fibers and to hold them together to unify the sheet.

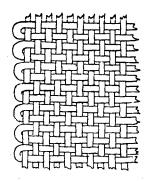
Basically, textile machinery in current practice car either manipulate the fibers mechanically and lay them substantially parallel; or deposit them, usually from an air stream in a random manner.

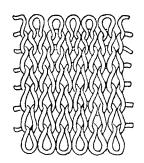
(Slide.)

The next slide illustrates the parallel array of fibers in the machine direction, and the next slide in the cross direction. (Slide.)

These structures are characterized by high strengths in the direction parallel to the fibers and less strength in the cross direction; and by quite uniform deposition of fibers resulting in relatively uniform pore size. The illustrations are, or course, idealized and the actual fabrics are not quite as uniform as shown.

The next slide (Slide) illustrates random arrangement of fibers, which may be either short lengths -- that is staple fiber -- or continuous filaments, as described earlier





FIBER CHARACTERISTICS

- NON-SOLUBILITY AND NON-REACTIVITY IN ACIDIC, BASIC OR ORGANIC ELECTROLYTE.
- RESISTANCE TO OXIDATION OR REDUCTION.
- SWELLING OR SHRINKAGE IN ELECTROLYTE.
- THERMAL STABILITY.

TABLE 1

FABRIC GEOMETRIC CHARACTERISTICS

- FABRIC THICKNESS.
- PORE SIZE AND SHAPE.
- UNIFORMITY OF PORE SIZE DISTRIBUTION.
- STRENGTH IN X AND Y DIRECTIONS.
- ELONGATION.

TABLE 2

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I Reporters, Inc. by another speaker, of infinite length. These structures are generally less uniform in thickness from point to point in the fabric and in pore size. Strength is more nearly isotropic in the X and Y directions, but this is usually not an important factor in separator design.

The next slide shows how thickness may be built up by superimposition of additional fibers -- next slide, please?

(Slide.)

And even given a strength in the Z direction by mechanical entanglement of fibers down through the layers.

Next slide, please. (Slide.)

This shows a piece of textile machinery which is used for making the random widths from staple fibers. Slide off, please.

The next slide illustrates how plying of multi-layers of oriented fibers can be used to build up increased thickness. This serves to decrease the pore size by filling in some of the slot-like spaces between individual fibers and increasing the tortuosity of open pathways. (Slide.) Pore size can be further decreased by compressing the fabric in the Z direction which cuts down the interfiber space and thus the size of the capillaries. I'll say more about this a little later.

Another technique which may be used to reduce the pore size further is by mixing fibers of two or more diameters.

As can be seen in the next slide, I don't know if you can make

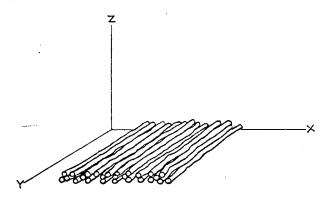


FIGURE 5

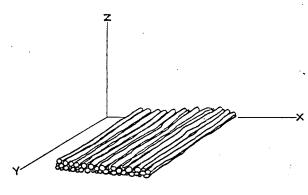
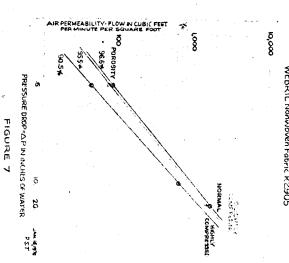


FIGURE 6

BINDER SYSTEMS

- HEAT AND PRESSURE SELF BINDING.
- SOLVENTS.
- MECHANICAL ENTANGLEMENT.
- CHEMICAL ENTANGLEMENT.
- ADHESIVE BINDERS.

TABLE 3



EFFECT OF FABRIC COMPRESSION ON PERMEABILITY-WEBRIL Nonviouen Fabric R2905

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out the very fine fibers there -- but the small ones can be used to fill in the voids between the large ones. (Slide.)

The next consideration is how to hold the fabric together once the fibers have been laid out in the desired manner. A number of choices is available here as shown in the next slide. (Slide.)

this earlier -- this shows a number of machines which, each of which has the capability of making a fiberous web of parallel fibers and laying it, superimposing it on the previous web on a continuous conveyer, so that we can build up this multi-layered structure that I illustrated, and also gives the capability of mixing the fibers of different diameters, as I illustrated.

Next slide, please. (Slide.)

Now, back to binder systems. Heat and pressure may be used with readily thermoplastic fibers, such as dynel, polypropylene and cellulose acetate, but care must be taken to avoid glazing over the surfaces and thus reducing permeability. Solvents may be used with some thermoplastic fibers of high melting point not susceptible to the pressure technique. Chemical or mechanical entanglement may be used with cotton or viscose rayon fibers which are not susceptible to heat or solvent methods. Adhesive binders are commonly used in nonwoven manufacture, but are not recommended for battery separators

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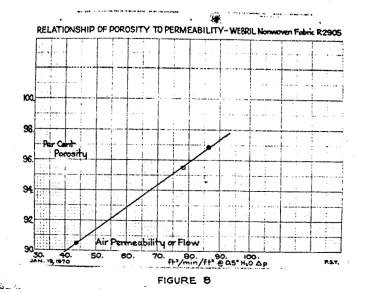
because they may decompose under oxidizing conditions and make undesirable by-products that interfere with electrochemical reactions.

Earlier I made some comments about the effects of compression on pore size. The next slide illustrates (Slide) how compression may be manipulated as a variable.

Mathematical expressions have been derived for the estimation of pore size by the study of flow rates through fabrics. Since this is much more convenient than other methods, it has been adopted here to illustrate this point.

This figure shows plots of air permeability against pressure drops for three variations in porosity of the same material. The uppermost line shows one of our standard cotton grades at its normal thickness, weight, and density. The middle line shows the same material after it has been calendared lightly; and the third line after calendaring with greater pressure.

bulk density. The actual density of cotton fibers is very close to 1.53, so that the porosity or fraction of voids can be calculated from the known weight and thickness of the fabric and its calculated density in relationship to the density of cellulose in it. That is, the density of the fabric divided by the density of cellulose gives the fraction of space occupied by the cotton fibers and the rest of the volume is



TYPICAL STRUCTURES

FIBER	BINDING SYSTEM	BATTERY END USE
cotton '	Chemical Entanglement	Mercury-Zinc Cuprous Chloride
Dynel	Mechanical Entanglement	Lead-Acid
Dynel	Heat and Pressure	Zinc-Air Lead-Acid Nickel-Cadmium
Polypropylene- Rayon	Apertured Linear Polypropylene	Zinc-Air
Polypropylene	Heat and Pressure	Nickel-Codmium
Nylon	Solvent	Nickel-Cadmium Silver-Zinc

TABLE 5

CAPACITY PARAMETERS

- WETTING ANGLE OF ELECTROLYTE ON FIBER POLYMER.
- FIBER DIAMETERS.
- PORE SIZE AS MODIFIED BY PRESSURE.
- FIBER FINISH ADDITIVE.

TABLE 4

made up of voids.

Next slide. (Slide.) This shows a plot of air permeability against porosity at a half-inch water drop pressure across the fabric, one of a number of values that could be considered. If we assume laminar flow and flow pressure drop through the pores, we know that the rate of flow is proportional to the fourth power of the dimension of the pores measured normal to the direction of flow and inversely proportional to the first power of the pore dimension in the direction of flow. This brings us to a cubic function which would plot as the straight line for flow rate, that is, permeability versus porosity.

Even though we are not dealing with ideal cylindrical pores in the fabrics, but rather with slot-shaped pores
in the case of carded fabrics and rather oval-shaped pores in
the case of random fiber fabrics, the mathematics permit us
to use these plots as valid indicators or how we have deliberately reduced pore size by application of external pressure to
these fabrics during their preparation.

slide, please. (Slide.) When hydrophobic fibers are chosen for their good resistance to oxidation and chemical stability in electrolyte, a liquid capacity holding problem is often encountered. The contributing factors are listed in the next slide. (Slide.)

Wetting angle of electrdyte on the fiber polymer,

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fiber diameters, pore size as modified by pressure, and fiber finish additives. Slide off, please.

Unfortunately, wetting angle is difficult to measure on individual fibers due to the narrow diameter of textile fibers in general. It is usually measured on fabrics or on films of polymers from which the fibers are made. An excellent discussion of wetting and contact angle on various substrates is found in Volume 43 of the the "Advances in Chemistry" series published by the American Chemical Society in 1964. It must be kept in mind, however, that wetting angles of aqueous fluids on fibers or substrates are tremendously affected by the finish the fiber producer applies to the fiber. In most instances in fact the initial contact angles measured on nonwovens are more dependent on fiber finish than on the basic nature of the fiber polymer.

The additives which are present on hydrophobic fibers and usually even on hydrophilic ones -- I'm talking about staples, remember. These finishes are put on so they can be handled on textile equipment and they may likewise give objectionable products on oxidation and produce undesirable electrochemical effects. Due cognizance should be taken of the presence of these agents and their removal undertaken if necessary. The same comment applies to fabric finishes which may be applied after the fabric has been manufactured.

Typical separator structures which have been

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designed and manufactured in commercial quantities for the end uses shown are tabulated in the next slide.

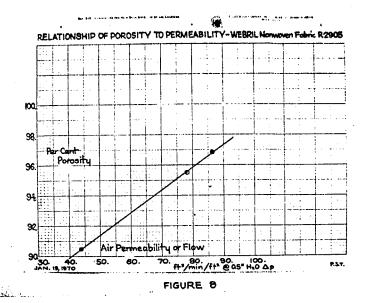
(Slide.)

Cotton, particularly in the mercury-zinc primary cells where the binder is absent— It's actually a chemical entanglement; it's also used in the cuprous chloride systems. Dynel by mechanical entanglement, binder systems in lead-acid. Dynel by heat and pressure system, in zinc-air, lead-acid, and nickel-cadmium.

polypropylene-rayon mixtures held together by an apertured film made of linear polypropylene in zinc air system. Polypropylene fiber put together with heat and pressure in nickel-cadmium; and nylon held together by a system which is proprietary I understand, and used in nickel-cadmium and silver-zinc.

Most of the structures may be used as separators or absorbers without further treatment. In the case of fabrics made from polypropylene fiber, absorption qualities or capabilities can be improved by irradiation techniques.

Now, when penetration by very fine dendrites must be prevented, or control or gaseous diffusion undertaken, these structures may serve as scaffolding for deposit or other membrane materials or be put in laminated structures where the necessary control is acchieved through an additional layer such as a semiporous membrane.



TYPICAL STRUCTURES

FIBER	BINDING SYSTEM	BATTERY ENDUSE
cotton	Chemical Entanglement	Mercury-Zinc Cuprous Chloride
Dynel	Mechanical Entanglement	Lead-Acid
Dynel	Heat and Pressure	Zinc-Air Lead-Acid Nickel-Cadmium
Polypropylene- Rayon	Apertured Linear Polypropylene	zinc-Air
Polypropylene Nylon	Heat and Pressure Solvent	Nickel-Cadmium Nickel-Cadmium Silver-Zinc

TABLE 5

CAPACITY PARAMETERS

- WETTING ANGLE OF ELECTROLYTE ON FIBER POLYMER.
- FIBER DIAMETERS.
- PORE SIZE AS MODIFIED BY PRESSURE.
- FIBER FINISH ADDITIVE.

TABLE 4

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Now what I have tried to talke about here today has been the opportunities available for the choice of fiber, fiber manipulation and fabric unification systems to achieve desired ends. But, there are two major difficulties encountered in the design of nonwoven fabrics for battery separators.

One is that textile labs, manufactuers, are rarely if every equipped to run electrochemical testing of proposed separator materials, and therefore, these tests must be run in the laboratories of the battery manufacturers.

The other problem is -- and this is the really big one -- is the one of identifying what is required. To overcome these difficulties, the nonwoven producer and the battery manufacturer must establish better communication at the technical level so that the fabric design skills may be directed in a most efficient manner.

Mounting a joint effort to define requirements and them employing nonwoven manufacturing techniques to achieve them presents some obstacles, but certainly they are surmountable ones.

Thank you.

(Applause.)

If you have any questions, I will try to answer them.

I think we'll take about a 10 minute -HENNIGAN: oh, we have one question here.

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CARR: Bill Carr, Eagle Picher.

I just have one question regarding the way you might manufacture a nonwoven material. This contrasting two of your materials, for example, El451 polypropylene by comparing it to something like EM490. In appearance they are nothing at all alike.

DANGEL: Yes.

CARR: One is very slick and the other is very permeable, I guess.

Can you maybe explain a little bit the differences as per your discussion?

percent polypropylene. The other one was shalf-nylon and and half-polypropylene, the EM490. These were both unified by the heat and pressure technique. The effect of having the nylon present on the surface in 50 percent proportion prevented a glazing over of this surface by the heat and pressure with which this fabric was unified.

CARR: Based on what we know, it seems that the glazing over of the surface is undesirable.

DANGEL: Yes. This is something we are aware of and are working to ameliorate.

Thank you.

HENNIGAN: Are there any further questions for Mr. Dangel?

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We will take a ten-minute coffee break.

(Recess.)

HENNIGAN: Our next speaker this morning on separators, to do mainly with the OAO battery, is Steve Gaston from Grumman Aircraft.

STEPHEN GASTON: In this presentation the organic and inorganic impurities of the Pellon material used for the OAO cell and the dynel and the viskon materials used during the formation of the OAO cell will be presented.

Other physical properties, such as thickness variations, electrolyte absorption, resistance, tensile strength, et cetera, were also examined.

However, a more thorough evaluation of the techniques applied and data obtained is required and it will be reported at a future date.

On Table 1 -- which I have shown here -- (Slide.)

I have to make a few corrections. On the maximum values there only hould be three significant figures; so the last number should have been crossed out. The percent chloride content

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in the makeum value column, it should be 0.28 not .028.

Essentially what we have shown here is the separator loss which we have used for four OAO batteries. For three batteries we have used Pellon Lot No. 16015. The the last OAO battery we used Lot No. 17160.

I believe there is another correction. I believe the designation ML has been removed by Pellon. Maybe Pellon would be to comment on it. The same basic style as we had used previously is being applied.

For the organic content determine the procedure specified in the interim cell specification was used.

Essentially it consists of the following steps.

First, each of the three samples was cut to 10 cm square and weighed on an analytical bance.

Second, the sample was inserted into a weighted container with the specific quantity of reagent grade methanol and magnetically stirred overnight.

The sample was removed and weighed after drying.

Solvent was filtered, evaporated, and brought to constant weight.

A thin film of each residue was placed between sodium chloride crystals and inserted into a Perkin-Elmer model 21 infrared spectrophotometer for spectral scanning from 2 to 15 microns.

I should note here in some instances, a larger sample -- double in size -- was required to get a readable

spectrum.

The results show variations in the organic contents between the three samples from each lot. Shown in this table are the minimum and maximum values. Also differences between the two lots can be noted.

The last column designated as maximum value shows the highest value obtained between the samples of the two lots. A number of different values for the percent weight loss for Lot No. 16015 was obtained. And also it should be noted that in addition to the use of different solvent materials, the ethanol and methylene chloride results were reported by ESB in their fifth quarterly report on alkaline separator studies for NASA-Goddard Contract NAS 5-10418, dated June - September, 1968.

The percent loss by the methanol technique was reported by U.S. Testing Company, Hoboken, New Jersey. There appears to be a closer correlation between the methanol and the methylene chloride extractions than the ethanol and the methylene chloride extractions. The specification target of two percent was slightly exceeded in Lot 16015, but was met in the later lot. It still seems reasonable that the maximum target of two percent should be kept in the specification.

The inorganic content determination method was as follows:

Each of these three samples was cut to 10 cm square

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and extracted using water. It was found that more than one sample was required to get a workable amount of residue. Specifically, two samples were required.

A quantitative analysis for nitrate, silicon, carbonate, nickel, zinc, titanium and chloride were conducted using the following methods:

For the nitrate, the Taylor method with phenoldisulfonic acid.

The silica, the Taylor method using color reagent one and two.

The carbonate-barium chloride method.

For the nickel, atomic absorption method.

For the zinc, the atomic absorption method.

For the titanium, the sulfuric acid peroxide colorimetric method.

And for the chloride, the Mohr method.

The emission spectrograph analysis were conducted on extracts that were asked and then analyzed for inorganic constituents using a Baird atomic emission spectrograph..

The total maximum inorganic content was 0.25 percent which is also the maximum target value specified both in the interim cell specification and the Grumman OAO cell specification.

(Slide.)

On Table 2, the separator analysis for the viscon material used is shown. I don't have at the moment the viscon

parameter. I have a receipt number. I don't have at the moment a specific viscon lot number. It's available and I think I can get it at a later date.

is used for the chemical cleaning or plate formation

process. That's one of the reasons why we analyzed -- had

the viscon and the dynel analyzed. The total organic and

prorganic content for the viscon material is comparable to the

results for the Pellon material analysis. I would say it's

slightly lower for the zinc and for the chloride.

The third graph (Slide) shows the analysis for
the dynel material. And again, it can be noted this is less
variation for the Pellon and viscon materials -- no, correction,

I'll take that back. In the dynel there is less variation in
the results than shown, than observed for the viscon and Pellon
materials. Therefore the maximum values are lower.

Table No. 4 (Slide) shows a -- this is redrawn from a spectrogram -- for separator lot number 17160, which is the last one used, and it shows absorptions which may be characterized as follows:

The presence of the N-H absorption is indicated in the 3 to 3.05 micron range and the C-H in the 3.4 to 3.5 range.

The CTO frequency appears in the 5.8 to 5.85 range as expected for the CTO group.

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OAO PELLON SEPARATOR ANALYSIS

0	APPLICABLE BATTERY	S/N 25A, 26A, 30, 31, 32, 33	S/N 34, 35	MAX VALUE
0	PELLON STYLE NO LOT NO.	2505 ML 16015	2505 ML 17160	
0	ORGANIC CONTENT - % RESIDUAL	1.27 - 2.44	1.35 - 1.50	2.44
	- % WT. LOSS: METHANOL ETHANOL (ESB) METHYLENE CL (ESB)	2.50 - 2.58 0.60 - 0.80 1.20 - 2.00	1.23 - 1.29	2.580 0.800 2.000
0	INORGANIC CONTENT - % ASH - % NITRATE - % SILICA - % CARBONATE - % INICKEL - % ZINC - % TITANIUM - % CHLORIDE	0.111 - 0.170 0.00012 - 0.00015 N/D 0.650 - 1.120 N/D N/D N/D N/D N/D 0.062 - 0.130	0.180 - 0.250 0.032 - 0.038 0.044 - 0.045 <0.003 0.010 - 0.011 0.160 - 0.200 ≤0.008 0.200 - 0.280	0.045 1.120 0.011

o SPECIFICATION TARGET - LESS THAN 2.0% BY WEIGHT TOTAL ORGANICS - LESS THAN 0.25% BY WEIGHT TOTAL INORGANICS

OAO CELL FORMATION SEPARATOR ANALYSIS - VISCON

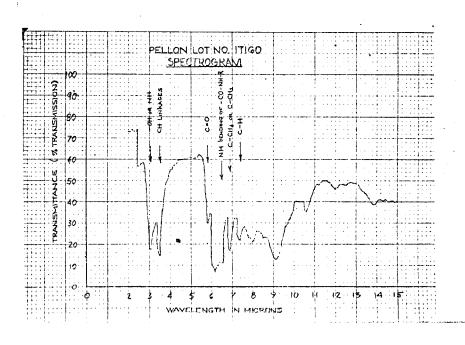
0	APPLICABLE BATTERY	. S/N 25A, 26A, 30, 31, 32, 33	S/N 34.35	MAX VALUE	
0	VISCON P/N	8787	8787		
0	ORGANIC CONTENT	,			
	- % RESIDUE - % WEIGHT LOSS	0.290 ~ 2.330 1.340 ~ 1.910	0.510 - 0.700 0.570 - 0.670	2.330 1.910	
0	INORGANIC CONTENT				
•	- % ASH - % HITRATE - % SILICA - % CARBUNATE - % NICKEL - % ZINC - % TITANIUM - % CHLORIDE	0.049 - 0.204 0.00016 - 0.60012 N/U 0.539 - 0.631 N/D N/D N/D 0.048 - 0.110	0.065 - 0.130 0.029 - 0.050 ≤ 0.018 0.005 - 0.018 ≤ 0.010 ≤ 0.003 ≤ 0.003 ≤ 0.004 ≤ 0.060	0.204 0.050 0.018 0.631 0.010 0.003 0.004 0.110	

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OAO CELL FORMATION SEPARATOR ANALYSIS - DYNEL

0	APPLICABLE BATTERY	S/N 25A, 26A, 30, 31, 32, 33	S/N 34, 35	MAX VALUE		
0	DYNEL P/N - R.R. NO.	7354	7354			
o	ORGANIC CONTENT					
	- % RESIDUE	0.270 - 1.520	0.570 - 0.760	1.520		
	- % WEIGHT LOSS	1.000 - 1.400	0.660 - 0.780	1.400		
o	INORGANIC CONTENT					
	- % ASH	0.021 - 0.122	0,023 - 0,044	0.122		
	- % NITRATE	0.00011 - 0.00093	0.019 - 0.026	0.026		
	- % SILICA	11/1	≤0,015	0.015		
	% CARBONATE	0.484 - 1.191	< 0.004	1.191		
	- % NICKEL	מאט	< 0.010	0.010		
	- Z ZINC	N/D	≤0,003	0.003		
	- % TITANIUM	N/D	≤0,004	0.004		
•	- % CHLORIDE	0.042 - 0.101	0.110 - 0.130	0.130		

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The band near 6.5 microns is indicative of N-H bending of the -CO-NH-R.

The 6.9 micron range is indicative of the -C-CH $_{\rm 3}$ of the C-CH .

The 7.3 to 7.4 micron range is indicative of the C-h presence.

And in general it appears that the spectra is similar to Sadtler's Standard Spectra for a complex Fattyamine.

That's all I have.

(Applause.)

HENNIGAN: Do we have any further questions on the separators for the OAO batteries?

FORD: Ford, NASA Goddard. Steve, I believe, and correct me if I am wrong, that the point of .25 percent on the inorganic has been changed. It's no longer a target when you put it at one percent maximum, is that correct?

GASTON: Yes, at one time we did change it to one percent. We have one additional separator which I haven't mentioned. That is the separator for the auxiliary electrode cell. And that was somewhat higher.

However, looking at the results in the last separator lot, I think we can change the target specification back to quarter percent inorganic content rather than keep that one percent. Essentially what I say somewhere in the past we did have a high result and therefore we did change the specification.

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We would like to change it back to quarter percent.

HENNIGAN: The next speaker will be myself on some of the information that we have gotten on polypropylene separators and we do have some comparison with nylon.

Now most of these -- well, all of these materials were selected in the program at Electric Storage Battery Company, Norberg Research Center, and the selected materials were delivered to Eagle Picher, who built these materials into six ampere cells, the regular steel, ceramic sealed cells. These cells do have Schlage locks on them so we can put guages or make gas analysis later on if we want to.

There is another thing we are trying to do here. don't know if we have been too successful. We do have some numbers. But again, what do these numbers mean? We make these wicking tests and wetting tests and absorption tests and so forth and can we pick out a good separator from these numbers? And I'm not saying we can. I'm just going to show you the data and you will have to decide for yourself.

There's a lot more data on these things. if we tried to put it all up here we would inundate you with I tried to pick out the data that normally people use in looking at a separator for a cell.

I wonder if I could have the first slide. (Slide.) This separator here is a Kendall material and it's polypropylene.

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Now all of these slides will have the control separator in the bottom or near the bottom slot. And on the left here we have the separator designated as E1451. AR throughout this talk will mean as received, as to materials delivered. W means washed out. And I will discuss that in a few minutes. T means treated.

Our graph here shows the ampere hours to one volt at a six amp discharge. Now this is the C rate for the cell.

Now this material here had somewhat of a higher resistance than normally we see but we wanted to build some cells out of it to see how much resistance did affect this. And the as received material did have a resistance of 34 ohm cm. It also had a very low air permeability. Wetting time was not too bad. Wicking would look attractive to most people. And the absorption was considered to be low here.

However, at the C rate, we only got 3.2 ampere hours out and the charge voltages were about 150 and pressure build up in the cell was 30 pounds psi guage. We tried washing this material out. I think this was washed in methanol, then dried. The resistance went up by a factor of three. Wetting time -- it just wouldn't wet. And Wicking was approximately zero. And we still got about the same number of ampere hours.

The treated material was washed out, as I mentioned before, but it was treated with concentrated sulfuric acid to see if it could improve the wetting properties of the surface.

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24. Reporters, Inc. Of course, it was washed out after the acid treatment within about 10 times or more in deionized water.

We didn't do much to improve the wicking here.

We did decrease the resistance again, and wetting time was improved. Air permeability in all three cases stayed about the same. There was some improvement here in the ampere hours in the C rate.

Our control material is the 2505 Pellon material, hot calendered as received. This has what is considered to be somewhat of a low wicking. It has a very good KOH obsorption. The resistance is low. The wetting time is not considered too bad. And air permeability here was 61, which is quite high.

Now the cells, we got 6.1 ampere hours and I forgot to point out the voltages up above there, but there were still rather high in the Kendall materials. The Pellon material of course was I'd say normal and the pressure was seven.

I might mention that all these charges are to C over 10 for about 16 hours.

Can we have the next slide please. (Slide.)

These separators here, the first one FT2140 is a Pellon polypropylene. We again have the 2505K4 which is the Pellon material. And a material that was given to us by Hercules. I don't know really of a number of this material. It's made by a fellow, Dr. Burroughs at the Research Triangle in North Carolina. You have to trace that one down.

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But the Pellon material here, wicking was just -wouldn't wick. And KOH absorption was, well, we'd call that
fair. AC resistance low. Wetting time seemed to be quite
long. And air perm was I guess reasonable.

This one gave us 6 ampere hours at the C rate. The voltage was 1.45 and the pressure went up to about 12 at the end of charge.

The Pellon material here, the K4, was washed out in dilute hydrochloric acid and the properties, well it didn't change too much, but I guess the air perm went up a little bit. This dropped the ampere hours to 5.5 and the voltage was slightly lowered. Pressure about the same.

The control material is given here again. This will be shown on the next slide for comparison.

Now the Hercules material at the C rate gave us

4.8 ampere hours. Fairly low voltage, the C over 10 and the
pressure went up to 26. Now the exact material that was used in
here we don't have the data yet from the ESB but from some of
the information I got from Eagle Picher it looks like the
KOH absorption is about 10. And this material wicks very fast.
And if you put it in KOH it just — it's a very fast wicking
material. I don't have any idea of the AC resistance.
Wetting time is very fast. I would say on the order of less
than a minute. And we don't have any information yet on the
air perm.

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Next slide, now, please. (Slide.)

This separator WX1242 is made by the GAF Corporation, General Aniline Film. This is a polypropylene, also. There are the numbers for the wicking. Air permeability is quite high on these materials. Wetting time is reasonable. AC resistance is low. We got six ampere hours at the C rate or the as received material. The under charge voltage was 1.45 and pressure was about 18.

This material was also washed out in methanol and then washed in water, deionized water, so here we change one of the properties considerably -- the wetting time. And we up the air perm a little bit. But it just correlates beautifully here, the ampere hours is higher now and the pressure stayed about the same in the under charge voltage stayed about the same.

And the latter is the Pellon control as received which is shown on the slide before.

All this information so far is at the C rate. There is a little stress on the cell. We normally don't use them at these rates. We do have some comparative data for C over 2.

Can I have the next slide, please.

(Slide:)

That shouldn't be C-plus, it should be C and C

SEPARATOR E1451

SEPARATORS FT2140, 2505K4 + HERCULES

	OLI AKATOK ELTOT					1	4							
		WICKING cm. in 5 hr.	KOH ABSORPTION g -cc dry vol	AC RESISTANCE	WETTING TIME minutes	AIR PERM, cc./sec.		1	WICKING cm. in .5 hr.	KOH ABSORPTION g./cc. dry vol.	AC RESISTANCE ohm-cm.	WETTING TIME minutes	AIR PERM. cc./sec.	
E1451 AR	EOC= 1.50 3.2	6.6	1.4	ohm-cm. 34	14	1.8	FT2140	EOC=1.45 6.0 P=12	0	2.8	1.7	45	51	
E1451 W	EOC= 1 50 2.9 P=20	0	0.7	96	>1440	1.7	2505K4 W	EOC=1.43 5.5 P=12	0.1	3.5	2.1	57	79	
E1451 T	EOC 148 4.8	0.1	0.7	32	81	1.7	CONTROL 2505K4 AR	EOC=1 43 6.1	1.0	3.1	2.8	11	61	
CONTROL 2505K4 AR	EOC:143 6.1	1.0	3.1	2.8	11	61	HERCULES	EOC=1.44 4.8						
AK	30 60					. :		3.0 6.0	0.10.4			EOC≠ENE	OF CHARGE	
	AMPERE HOURS TO AT 6.0 AMPERE DISCHARGE	O 1.0 V			EOC=ENC VOLTAGE P=PSIG	O OF CHARGE		AT 6.0 AMPERE DISCHARGE	0 1.0 ¥			VOLTAGE P≃PSIG		

SEPARATOR WEX 1242

COMPARISON OF CAPACITIES AT C+C/2 RATES C=6 AH

	WICKING	KOH ABSORPTION	AC	WETTING TIME	AIR PERM		C=6 AH	
	cm. in .5 hr	g./cc. dry vol.	RESISTANCE ohm-cm.	minutes	cc./sec.	SEPARATOR	CAPACITY AT C RATE TO 1.0 VOLT	CAPACITY AT C/2 RATE TO 1.0 VOLT
WEX1242 EOC=1.45 6.0	0.3	2.4	, 3.2	14	96	E1451AR	3.2	4.7-6.2
						E1451W	2.9	5.3-6.2
WEX1242 EOC=145 6.5	0	1.4	2.9	>1440	125	E1451T WEX1242AR	4.8 6.0	6.5 7.5
CONTROL EOC:143 6.1	1.0	3.1	2.8	11	61	WEX1242W	6.5	7.6 7.4
2505K4 P=7			2.0			FT2140 2505K4W	6.0 5.5	7.5
30 60	·				,	HERCULES 2505K4AR	4.8 6.1	7.3 7.3
AMPERE HOURS T AT 6.0 AMPERE DISCHARGE .	0 1 0 V			EOCKENI VOLTAGI PEPSIG	O OF CHARGE	(CONTROL)	. 0.1	7.5

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over 2 rates. Again C equals six ampere hours.

The separator numbers are listed in the first column. Capacity at C rate which was on the graphs before is listed in the second column. In the third columnyou get C over 2 capacity.

The first three materials I previously mentioned are the Kendall materials as received, washed out and treated.

was there was quite a range in capacities. I guess I forgot to mention before this is always a sample of six cells we are talking about. And the rest of them were a tenth or two tenths of an ampere hour. The 1242 material again is the General Analine Film. The FT2140 is Pellon. The 2505K4 is Pellon. And Hercules material as mentioned before.

Now it looks here a couple of these Pellon materials look very comparable to the operation with the nylon separator. Of course, we are only talking about a couple of cycles here. How this material is going to hold up in a cycling program is the big question.

What we plan to do with these cells is cycle them at Crane and about every three months we will pull one and bring it back to Goddard here and compare the properties of the material with the virgin samples. In the meantime we might get some better tests for the wetting properties and absorption

properties and so forth.

Thank you.

(Applause.)

Are there any questions, please. Cohn?

COHN: Cohn, NASA.

measured, so far.

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But as far as -- these are the type of tests people are normally using. I'm trying to show you they aren't very good to pick out the separator that we need. I am just

I noticed that on your initial four or five slides, something like that you had quite a few different physical properties which as far as I could see didn't really correlate with anything that we are after. I wonder whether you could make a decision now by hindsight whether some of these properties perhaps need not be determined because they don't have any influence and whether perhaps there are other properties that you may have found out about meanwhile that could be more useful that should be measured, which have been

HENNIGAN: Well, we hope to go back to, by hindsight, to find out how these properties are changing with time.

Now there were some other properties -- quite a few other properties we measures that I just couldn't see any, there wasn't much correlation here except as I say on resistance; there was one that gave you an indication that 30 ohm cm is too high.

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emphasizing the point here that has been mentioned three or four times already: We don't have any information to give the fiber manufacturer to really tell us where we got a good separator for a battery. It's very surprising some of these materials won't wick at all yet they work well in cells and normally you would throw some of these materials out long ago.

Wil Scott, of TRW?

SCOTT: I gathered that wicking tests were done in air at atmospheric pressure, is that correct?

> HENNIGAN: That's right,

SCOTT: Has any comparison been done with the wicking rates in a vacuum?

HENNIGAN: Well, they've done it in the presence of nitrogen. I didn't see any effects there. Not in vacuum. I haven't done anything in vacuum.

SCOTT: One other question.

I notice you used calendered Pellon, 2505, as a And the maximum loft material has been used mostly control. in other cells. Why was the K, calendered material used in this case?

HENNIGAN: One of the reasons is we are having an awful lot of trouble getting any control on the thickness of maximum loft. It's difficult to handle the cells. We did use the K4 to also look at a new Pellon material here. Eventually we expect to go back and get some more cells and

include maximum loft in the next set.

BILLERBECK: Billerbeck, COMSAT.

Tom, I wanted to ask if there was any accelerated testing of the separator in this program like boiling hot KOH or any sort of accelerated test, relative test, of the separators.

HENNIGAN: There was some tests, tensile strength test on that high temperatore, and there was also some, I don't know what you call accelerated -- see, we are also interested in some of these materials for silver cells and there was also some tests done with silver oxide.

I got some information on that. It's a little bit -some of the materials lost weight; some of them gained weight.

Some of them picked up silver actually in this test. And it's
kind of normal for the nylons to pick up silver.

BILLERBECK: Yes. Well, we've been wondering if there is any good accelerated test that one can use for looking at separator degredation. I just wondered if you had any comments on that stemming out of this program.

HENNIGAN: Well, on the silver oxide test, for instance, the Kendall materials gained some weight. The GAF materials, well, it depended on whether you as-received it or washed it. In the first case it lost and in the second case it gained. And then in the rest of the materials, it's about a five to 10 percent loss. But I don't know if there is

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any correlation with cell testing in this information either.

Bob Corbett?

I wonder as far as the capacity data at the C rate, I guess these cell capacities were all measured at the same point, as they went through the same previous history and all that?

HENNIGAN: That's right.

CORBETT: And what was the electrolyte quantity comparison between cells? Was it the same amount or was it optimized for that separator?

HENNIGAN: No, it was optimized for each separator. Now we did -- one of the reasons we put Swageloks we -- some of these cells that are low, one of the things I think I'll do is try to start adding electrolyte to these cells maybe we didn't add enough.

> CORBETT: So these were starved cells, so-called?

HENNIGAN: Yes.

CORBETT: Okay.

HENNIGAN: Regular sealed Ni-cad cells. You would call them space type. Mr. Dangel?

MR. DANGEL: Is there any correlation between thickness of the separator and the capacity of the cell?

The Kendall materials were about half the HENNIGAN: thickness of all the rest. And I think the Kendalls were five times ten to the minus three cm, and the rest were about ten or 12.

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DANGEL: Is this an indicator of anything that we should be doing that could be useful? If we improved the thickness would that give you better capacity?

HENNIGAN: Well, that cell there had the lowest amount of electrolyte in it because it has the least amount of separator. I'd say if we had a thicker separator and we treated this with the sulfuric acid, we might be successful there. As you know, if the seal were too great, that sell did come up in capacity to a fairly decent number six and a half. And it looked like it needed something done to it. And the sulfuric acid treatment seemed to help.

COHN: Cohn, NASA, again. Stimulated by Billerbeck's question, I'm just wondering whether perhaps Dr. Wieninger's triangular sweep might be applied in this case as a method of getting cadmium into or silver for that matter into or near the separator and finding out how the separator stands up.

Perhaps Dr. Wieninger would care to comment on the possibility of using this as an accelerated test method of separators.

WEININGER: Weininger, GE.

I really have to think about that a little bit.

But the point of the method is that you are always under potential static control. And just thinking off the top of my head I would say that it, the migration would be reduced if you do not allow the peak of the triangular sweep to go to high voltage. However, if you do so on purpose, then you

Reporters, Inc. are going to run into very heavy oxygen evolution at the positive electrodes, and surely you could in a very short time also oxidize your cadmium and get it into the separator.

Is that the question?

COHN: Yes.

WEININGER: Offhand, I don't see any reason why you conldn't do that very rapidly, yes.

HENNIGAN: John Leuthard?

LEUTHARD: Leuthard, Martin Marietta.

Tom would I be right in assuming that if on some particular cell the material parameters are established for a particular cell and that cell subsequently operates satisfactorily, that these parameters could be used to inspect subsequent lots of material that is bought and would all these parameters be applicable?

HENNIGAN: Like if we picked one like the Pellon material?

established these parameters to be whatever you had up there or whatever the material we bought at that time, and those cells were built from that material operated satisfactorily, then could that same set of parameters be used for subsequent lot buying of the particular type of separator?

HENNIGAN: Well, we only have one lot here. I don't know how they can vary lot to lot. Now in Pellon

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materials, the nylon that we normally use, I think we get quite a bit of variation in that lot to lot. There's no -- we try to hold say that organic content down to less than two percent but as you see in the OAO battery some of it was up a little higher than two percent. If you are in production do you hold because it's 2.4 or go get another lot? That is the question. And it's -- I don't know how good these parameters are lot to lot, no.

LEUTHARD: Do you know whether some parameters are more significant than others with respect to that kind of inspection criteria?

there was a high resistance correlating with the low capacity

-- as far as a good feel for this thing, the Hercules

material looked like it would be a terrific separator. It

absorbed quite a bit of electrolyte. I didn't have any numbers
on that. Wicked very well and so forth. At the C rate it

didn't operate well, when we put it down to C over 2 it

worked fine. So maybe some of these, depending on what you
want to use the cell for --

LEUTHARD: Well, we're interested right now for heat sterilizable separator material for the Viking cells, nickel cad, and we are looking at polypropylene because the nylons just won't stand the high temperatures.

Of course, associated with that are all the problems

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wicking and so we are interested -- anybody that has any information, we would certainly be grateful.

HENNIGAN: Dr. Will, of General Electric?

amount to as much as a factor of two. Now that is really quite a teriffic discrepancy in these test results. Now assume of course that the conditions that you had in hand like the thickness of the plates, the free volume in sealed cells was exactly the same all of these cells, and the question is unescapable since there was no trend, no systematic trend to be observed in any of the parameters studied, the question is unescapable as to which property indeed then causes this surprising discrepancy of a factor of two.

Now, is there some standardization missing? Is there need for looking at precisely the same thickness of the separator? Do we know enough about the porosity, the different porosities of these various separators?

It seems to me that the amount of electrolyte contained in the battery might be the major parameter involved here that might account for the large discrepancies of a factor of two.

HENNIGAN: Well, that's one of the reasons we put
the Swageloks on there so we can add more electrolyte.

Of course it's very difficult to take any out once you spin
them but you can measure that amount, but we would like to add

more to those cells that were very low.

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Earl Carr?

CARR: I'd like just to say one thing. With respect to the capacity of the cells at the two different rates, definitely do have a trend and that the internal or the AC resistance measurement of the separator is definitely correlated with loss of performance.

I might also just add that even though the E1451 materials were the thinnest, they have the highest resistance. Of course, we are talking to Mr. Dangel about that. The surface is a glazed surface and it seems to give some difficulty as far as permeability. I think the two are related.

Those cells were shimmed using stainless steel shims on each end of the cell case to maintain the same approximate impression on the stack or in the cell core.

Based on the free volume calculations and the adjustments of electrolyte we feel that they are quite equal, at least as close as we can come.

LACKNER: Lackner, DRE, Canada.

There is a factor that's possibly missing here.

I think they are mentioning electrolytes. In your washing in your sulfuric acid treatment, it seems to me that you have a higher resistance and you had a lower wicking rate.

Now, is it possible that the wetting agent which

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we are not getting as much electrolyte in the separator as
we should. And so we are creating a higher resistance and
our lower capacities.

HENNIGAN: Well, the as-received had AC resistance,

has been mentioned has been washed out because all of these

materials are hydrophobic anyway, without the wetting agent,

you are talking about the Kendall. When it was washed out
the resistance went up by a factor of three. When it was treated
with sulfuric acid it went back to the original value of about
32. And then the --

LACKNER: But --

HENNIGAN: The wicking rates were phenomenal. This is a bonded material.

LACKNER: Has any work been done on wetting agents?
HENNIGAN: Mainly taking them out.

(Laughter.)

DANGELL: Hercules, which provided the fiber used in the 1451 as a recommended wetting agent, I believe it's QS3 by Rohm and Haas. They suggest that whatever surface active agent they put on the fibers for textile handling ease be removed and be replaced with this QS3. I don't know if anybody -- Burroughs, who you dealt with, I presume, is the leading proponent of this. I presume he would discuss this with anybody who is interested.

HENNIGAN: Well, what is the amount of agent that

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you could extract from Hercules material? I think it was on the order of one-tenth of a percent.

DANGELL: Yes, one-tenth of a percent.

HENNIGAN: Right.

DANGELL: They recommend the removal with Stoddard solvent, methyl alcohol. I don't know why sulfuric acid was used. Maybe they have a good reason.

HENNIGAN: Well, the fellows at ESB thought these oxidize the surface slightly, make it more wettable. Now it didn't improve the wicking properties at all. In fact it really didn't do it but just gave us better capacity.

FLEISCHER: I would like to know to clear my own mind, how did you calculate to know how much electrolyte to add to each of these cells and were they really very different from one to the next?

HENNIGAN: I think they varied from 3-1/2 to 4 CCs per ampere hours, is that about right?

VOICE: Approximately.

HENNIGAN: That is using the Pellon material, the K4 took the most.

Bill Harsch?

HARSCH: Bill Harsch, Eagle Picher.

Tom, I'm just curious, when you are characterizing these separators at ESB, were any of the separators tested to the same type of test but under compression?

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HENNIGAN: You mean like absorption and so forth?

HARSCH: Yes.

HENNIGAN: They did try the Pellon material only, the pellon materials only under compression and it was a rather difficult test to run. I mean the plates will pull the electrolyte out just like a blotter and there wasn't too much uniformity. They tried samples of about three or four. There wasn't too much uniformity there.

handling the materials I myself haven't done any testing like this but in handling the materials, the different polypropylenes seem to have different compressive strengths. Some of them are rather stuff and rigid andthe others are very downy.

And I'm wondering whether the actual numbers we are looking at don't change drastically under compression as they would be when they in a cell?

these properties -- as I said before, we are going to start pulling these cells out to test, sending them to the aterials ranch here, and in the meantime we would like to come up with -- we have the virgin materials that went into these cells.

And we would like to come up with a, try some more different types of tests that might give us some correlation with the data we have now and the cell test. Now maybe this compression one would be a good one to go.

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related to the progress of the discharge and the drying out of the separator and, in other words, the particular separator may have a tendency to hold less electrolyte to support the full discharge, and you could check that by taking cell resistance measurements, particularly as you cross over an exhauster—go on to three after hours and then fall down.

You may find that your separator is completely dried out.

HENNIGAN: That's one thing we can do. We do it normally in the acceptance test. You mean do this during the discharge, take out half the capacity and measure it?

Are there any further questions?

THIERFELDER: General Electric.

I was wondering about these capacities. What is the definition of capacity, to a certain end voltage?

HENNIGAN: Yes, to one volt. The first data was to one volt at C rate. And the last one was to one volt at the C and C over 2 rate.

THIERFELDER: If the end volt can be picked at a lower number, maybe the capacity of the polypropylene cells would have actually come up. The given capacity to a higher end volt.

HENNIGAN: Well, they were cut off at one volt.

When we do the acceptance test at Crane we can run them down to zero.

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THIERFELDER: I was wondering if the capacities were compared down to zero you might get closer capacities.

HENNIGAN: We just got the cells going to acceptance and test, so these are some things that we can do.

textile physics of it, I think you hit the nail on the head as far as the function of wetting out properties go, whether the substance is under compression or not. You may get tremendous inneractions where something would be poor, not compressed, and yet yet maintain this same degree of wicking where a very compressible structure may have a lower wetting out time. It should be looked at, I think, and I guess the easiest way of doing it would be calendering these materials to the same thickness they had when they were under compression but of course then you get a contamination of the surface glazing, and that may confound your analysis.

CARR: I have just a couple of things to say since everybody else seems to be finished.

In these conferences sometimes it's a little hard to recognize new information and I think really and truly there is some new information, and I just want to point it out that we took the wetting agents out of the cells or ESB took the wetting agents out of the separators and we built cells and if anything they ran slightly better, or in some cases they ran better, which tends to make you believe that

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you might not need the wetting agent in the cell.

Now I am not saying that we do or we don't but it was interesting. We were advised to let the cells stand after activation for maybe a week before we would start doing any tests on the cells, but we were kind of an impatient lot anyway and we started the first charge on the cells in approximately 48 hours after activation. Of course we were watching very carefully to make sure that the voltages stayed down and that the cells acted normally, and they did.

There was no change in charging characteristics as we could detect from the first charge to the fifth or sixth charge, indicating that there was any change of the wetting characteristics of the separator which caused the change in performance.

So I really think this is new information, and I just wanted to point it out.

HENNIGAN: If there's no further questions here we would like to move on to the area of seals.

As you know, years ago of course we had our problems there. I won't tell you they are all solved. It seem to be not too great, if the seal is built right, it's not too great a problem any more. But that's a pretty tough statement. But we have three people on seals. We would like to finish up the seals session this morning and delay the -- going to lunch until about 12:45.

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And our first speaker is Bob Steinhauer from Hughes Aircraft on a long life ceramic seal.

STEINHAUER: I would like to run through the salient points that we should consider in metal ceramic seal design for nickel cadmium space cells.

Metal ceramic structures have been used for various applications. Earliest, I guessin the vacuum electron tube industry, in nuclear fields for liquid metal cooling, on Stanford linear accelerator which is another vacuum application, in ion engines where you have plasma environments, space nickel cadmium cells and more recently in gas lasers.

The seals must be designed for the application as our cells may have to be. I would like to discuss the parameters that must be considered in selecting a metal ceramic terminal seal design for nickel cadmium cells for long life. By long life I would define that as in excess of four, five years.

I would like to show the interactions of these parameters and their affect upon the end product, and also make the statement that I think metal ceramic terminal seals have been used and that they are a good choice for this application. And to recommend three different types of seals that could be used for 10-year applications.

The content here has been refined on our low earth orbit program for the Air Force at Wright-Patterson and we will be testing three different types of seals.

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(Slide.)

The primary areas that must be considered are the ceramic body, the braze alloys used, the controlled or low expansion alloys and what metalizing or active metalizing or active alloys are used for bonding to the alumina-ceramic and then the geometry.

In the ceramic body, we should go to higher aluminas. We should go to small grain size to enhance both tensile and flexural strengths, minimum silicate content, because it's attacked by the KOH, and if you eliminate the silica you may want to consider, you could consider lower aluminas -- by low I mean certainly above 95 percent but with flex agents other than silica.

I would like to put a comparison table up here.

These happen to be Coors bodies. The only reason I selected

Coors at this point is that their brochure contains more

data for comparison purposes than the competitors in certain

cases, particularly with regard to crystal size.

(Slide.)

The crystal size is extremely important if you look as you go toward the higher aluminas it tends to drop off but as you go to smaller grain size it goes up. Now if we take this data and use a technique to get a straight line plot, namely a log log plot, for flexural strength, two points have been specifically ignored down here in this area because

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they were some of the earlier developed bodies. similar, whether its WESGO or American Lava body, the85 and 90 percent bodies were developed specifically for metalizing purposes. They metalize well but they are not good for this application. The higher aluminas you will notice do have a definite relationship to average crystal size to . flexural strength and this property is most important to us for our application.

I want to point out the 99 percent body of low average crystal size being fairly high value. What we are typically using are bodies that range from 96 percent level in here through the 995 level which in the case of Coors I guess shows up as a lower strength body.

If you plot other manufacturers' data on top of this, you will find similar relationships.

(Slide.)

The tensile strengths are similar.

(Slide.) (/)

Now, trying to compare (Slide.) different ceramics that may have been used in nickel cadmium seals and what the flexing agents are, I would like to point out that this body -- this is an analysis provided by American Lava at letter request and this one also.

This high silica content is of some concern for I would prefer to see it down but maybe it's long term seals. not as harmful in the ceramic body as it may be in a

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METAL-CERAMIC TERMINAL SEALS FOR NICKEL-CADMIUM SPACE CELLS

KEY AREAS OF CONSTDERATION

- CERAMIC BODY
- BRAZE ALLOYS
- CONTROLLED EXPANSION ALLOYS
- ACTIVE METAL, METALIZING, & ACTIVE ALLOYS FOR BONDING TO ALUMINA CERAMIC
 - SEAL GEOMETRY

HIGH ALUMINA CERAMICS

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G.E.	G.E. A-923	11.E5GO	AMERICAN LAVA 772	AMERICAN LAVA 753	AMERICAN LAVA 614	COORS AD-999	COORS AD-995	COORS AD-96	CHEMISTRY
99,99	970	99.50	99.50	99.500	95.9%	₩ ₽,₹₽	99,5%	3636	6,3 ¹⁹
•1.0	200	-		0.1200	2.5%	50-100 PPM	₩£.0		20
1.0	0.0500				0.140,				000
	0.05%	-		0.30%	0.9%	0.05%	0.2%		O.M
	13.00.0							<u> </u>	505.5
 -						0.05%			10%
	+	 	1	0.04%	0.10			1	25/11
		 			0.030,			L	06.1
	+-	+	 	0.04%	201.0			1-	Open
	+	-		1	0.05%				, tou
		+	 						HYSICAL
						E	20	11	AV. X-TAL 5128, µm
37	+	-		28.0	25.0	45.0	28.0	28.0	TENSILE STRENGTH, Kpri
42.0	52.0	45.0	70.0	0.84	0,84	0.98	0.0	47.0	FLEXURAL STRENGTH, PDI
	-	1725	0001	1650	1950	0091	1730	1700	MAX. USE

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CERAMIC BODY

- HUGHES ------
- . HIGH ALUMINA CERAMIC REQUIRED 99.9% A12 03
- . SMALL GRAIN SIZE TO ENHANCE TENSILE STRENGTH. 1.E. 1-6.4M
 - * MINIMUM SILICA CONTENT
 - ullet other flux agents may be acceptable such as cr2 0_3

COORS ALUMINA CERAMICS

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FLEXURAL STRENGTH, Kpsi	AVERAGE CRYSTAL S1ZE, um	SYMBOL	MINIMUM % AI ₂ O ₃	80DY
43.0	7	0	85.0	AD-85
49.0	4	0	90.0	AD-90
51.0	12	\Q	94.0	A0-94
52.0	11	Δ	96.0	AD-96
48.0	22	Δ	0.00	AD-99
45.0	20	۵.	99.5	AD-995
48.0	19	۵	99.8	AD-998
95.0	ξ,	0	99.9	AD-999
41.0	20 ·	•	99.9	VISTAL
	57.RENGTH, Kpsi 43.0 49.0 51.0 52.0 48.0 48.0 48.0 48.0	CRYSTAL STRENGTH, Kpsi Kpsi Kpsi Kpsi Kpsi Kpsi Kpsi Tp. 43.0 43.0 12 51.0 11 52.0 11 52.0 22 48.0 20 45.0 19 48.0 19	SYMBOL CRYSTAL SIZE,μm STRENGTH, Kpsi O 7 43.0 □ 4 49.0 □ 12 51.0 △ 11 52.0 △ 22 48.0 □ 20 45.0 □ 19 48.0 □ 19 48.0 □ 19 48.0 □ 3 95.0	% Al ₂ O ₃ SYMBOL CRYSTAL STRENGTH, Kpsi 85.0 O 7 43.0 90.0 □ 4 49.0 94.0 □ 2 51.0 96.0 △ 11 52.0 99.5 □ 22 48.0 99.5 □ 20 45.0 99.8 □ 19 48.0 99.9 ○ 3 95.0

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metalizing mix as I will comment on later. They do have a 29.5 body as do other people. These generally are large grain size bodies.

These two bodies that have been developed by

General Electric in their Schenectady labs have been used on a seal that I would like to talk about later. The one point that I would make is the large grain size, and the implications from the previous chart.

One further point: specific notice to this Coors

AD99 body which showed up highest in flexural and tensile

strength. It is the highest flexural strength which is

highly desirable for what we are looking for. It has extremely

low silicate contents, in the 50 to 100 PPM range. It is

fluxed with magnesia Tutrea. This is a patented body by

Coors. Therefore, they freely provided this analytical data.

Those two fluxing agents and the low silica content and the

low crystal size are of extreme interest to us

(Slide.)

In terms of braze alloys, the silver alloys should be avoided because of possible migration problems even when they are used in an alloy with another metal. Copper alloys are compatible. We are using them with cell electric chemistry. Nickel alloys may not be desirable because of a binary alloying with titanium, but I am going to take exception to that statement later.

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The gold alloys are gold copper palladium or perhaps gold copper nickel, are acceptable.

(Slide.)

I asked our electrochemist, Jack Gillette, to look into how copper, whether it would be acceptable or not, and since it's between this point and this point, he states that he can see no problem with using copper. I understand that copper was used as a substrate in the Edison cell I believe for the iron electrode.

VOICE: No.

STEINHAUER: No? Sorry.

These are several braze alloys that have been used and could be considered. You will notice the liquidous points go higher and higher in temperature. The higher the temperature you go, in general the thing that you are bonding to the ceramic with the active element can degrade this ceramic at shorter times of course at high temperatures and this has to be considered.

The seal that I referred to previously at General Electric, the business center and the people in Gainesville have been working to develop a seal for nickel cadmium cells. This is a patented process that makes use of the TINI3 eutechnic. This alloy is compatible with the alkalin cadmium nickel cell environment.

I'm concerned with the silver in these alloys. We

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have to be careful with this type of an alloy because of its brittleness, which I will comment on a little bit later.

(Slide.)

Using low expansion alloys to contact the ceramic, you try to match the linear thermal coefficient of expansion to the alumina that you are using. These are three possible alloys that could be used. Alloy 42, the F-15ASTM alloy, which is an iron nickel cobalt. And the alloy 52. You don't necessarily have to use these alloys if you put these ceramics in compression, but it's still better to use something that is near to the expansion coefficient and preferably thin. By that I mean not to exceed 20 mills. Ten to 15 mills thickness is preferable.

Again there are numerous ceramic metal structures made with thicker elements.

(Slide.)

These are the chemistries and as you can see whether you pick -- the only thing of significance is the difference that this F15 alloy is slightly low in expansion coefficient.

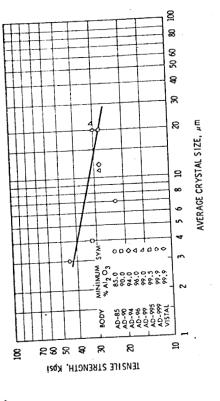
The yield and tensile properties are roughly the same.

(Slide.) (v)

If we look at the expansion coefficient, the materials of interest are the alumina, the alloy 52, 42, F15 alloy, and then for comparative purposes, nickel, copper and stainless steel.

COORS HIGH ALUMINA CERAMICS

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FLEXURAL STRENGTH, Kpsi

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AVERAGE CRYSTAL SIZE, "M

CERAMIC-METAL TERMINAL SEAL BRAZE ALLOYS

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BRAZE ALLOY	CHEMISTRY, WEIGHT %	Liquibus, °c	SOLIDUS, °C
CUSIL	72 Ag 28 Cu	780	780
PALCUSIL 5	68 Ag 27 Cu 5 Pd	810	807
GOLD-COPPER	30 Au 20 Cu	910	806
0109	100 Au	1063	1063
PALORO	92 Au 8 Pd	1240	1200
i N	21 Ti 79 Ni	1380	086.1

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COPPER ALLOYS ARE COMPATIBLE WITH CELL ELECTROCHEMISTRY

NICKEL ALLOYS NOT DESIRABLE BECAUSE OF BINARY ALLOYING WITH TITANIUM

GOLD, 80 GOLD 20 COPPER, OR GOLD-PALLADIUM ARE CANDIDATE ALLOYS

BRAZE ALLOYS

SILVER ALLOYS SHOULD BE AVOIDED BECAUSE OF POSSIBLE
MIGRATION PROBLEMS

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It is possible to make metal ceramic seals between thick piecew of copper and alumina. But again it narrows your process tolerance down to the point where you have to be very carefull and control your process much more carefully than if you allow yourself a little more latitude.

(Slide.)

There are different methods that can be used to bond to the ceramic. I believe that the titanium and sirconium systems are preferable. The titanium passivates immediately and you cannot, in its oxide form, on the surface, you cannot cause it to corrode.

In general there's three parts to a metal ceramic bond. It's a crated seal similar to a quartz glass seal.

You are starting out with the ceramic, your active metal ties in to either the ogygen of the ceramic or in the case of a metalizing process you make that class E phase by placing elements in the mix. Then you have metal -- a glassy to metal transition and finally to your braze alloy..

This should have a two after it but this glassy phase in the polymanganese as well as the molly itself, this is soluble in KOH. The glassy phase in particular you can never cover that glassy phase. It always sticks out from underneath the ceramic where the COH can get to it and just go across the seal. The molly is likewise soluble. As is tungsten. These have been reported insoluble but the two people clean these

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surfaces with alkaline solutions and long term tests have shown that they are indeed soluble. I do not recommend molly or tungsten.

Oromium is a nice system. It does not degrade the ceramic but it is readily soluable in KOH.

The active alloys are -- have been used to braze things like titanium to titanium. They can be used on ceramic but they are a little bit difficult to handle. I don't recommend their use at this point.

(Slide.)

That may be a little hard to see but the types of seals that we have been using are the stress relief type.

Mainly they have a low expansion alloy that can take up differences in expansion between the stainless cam and the ceramic.

One of the failure modes has been a misalignment.

I can show that. (Slide.) It doesn't matter whether you use the geometry at the top here of this one. The ceramic can misalign to the point where it hits the post at the stress relief collar. This point here -- excuse me.

At the cuff and at the cup. The problem -- let me think about that. No. It can hit the post at this point and at this point causing the braze alloy at the cuff to go to zero and there is not a corrosion type of leakage but a tortuous path that eventually the KOH comes through.

ELECTROCHEMICAL COMPATIBILITY OF COPPER BRAZE ALLOYS

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H ₂ 0 → H ₂	-0. 828	0.000
Cd (OH)2 → Cd	-0.805	0.023
Cu ₂ O → Cu	-0.361	0.467
Cu O → Cu	-0. 258	0.570
Cu (OH) ₂ → Cu	-0. 224	0.604
0 ₂ → OH -	0.401	1, 229
NI 00H → NI (0H)2*	0.49	1.32

* Ni 02 - Ni (OH)2

METAL-CERAMIC TERMINAL SEALS LOW EXPANSION ALLOYS

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CHEMISTRY	ALLOY 42	ALLOY 52	F-15 ALLOY
Ni	42.0	50.5	29.0
Fe	BAL.	BAL.	BAL.
Co			17.0
Mn	0.50	0.50	0.30
\$1	0. 25	0. 25	0. 20
C	0. 05	0.01 MAX	0.02
Ti .	0.40		
PHYSICAL			
THERMAL EXP., oC-1, 25-800°C	12. 1 × 10 ⁻⁶	12.5 x 10 ⁻⁶	10.3 × 10 ⁻⁶
TENSILE STRENGTH, Kpsi	80. 0	80.0	75.0
YIELD STRENGTH, Kosi	34.0	40, 0	50.0

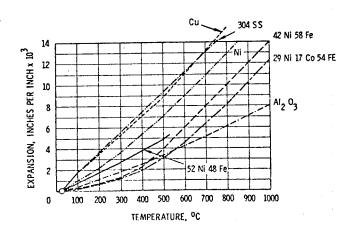
CONTROLLED EXPANSION ALLOYS



METAL HARDWARE CONTACTING CERAMIC BODY SHOULD EXHIBIT LOW LINEAR THERMAL EXPANSION

ALLOY 42	42% NICKEL	58% IRON	
• F-15 ALLOY	29% NICKEL	54% 1RON	17% COBALT
ALLOY 52	52% NICKEL	48% IRON	

EXPANSION CURVES FOR MATERIALS USED IN METAL-CERAMIC TERMINAL SEALS



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We have observed in both types of seals, this, and it's usually less than a half a percent of the sample that we have. A simple alignment would get around that problem.

These seals of this geometry may well be able to be made into the long life seals. The problem is that it requires a ductile alloy. It's very sensitive if you attempt ot put a brittle alloy in there and you have to watch out for things that will react with titanium.

Again, the higher aluminas, thin elements, matching coefficients of expansion in this case the ductil alloy. The seal shown here is the one developed by General Electric. The system of using nickel titanium, these are high expansion but it is used in a controlled manner. materials are compatible. Perhaps this should be a weld rather than a braze or a different braze alloy.

It does use the ceramic back up rings. a butt seal geometry or what I call electron gun structure as contrasted to a stress relief geometry.

These back up rings at first seem superfluous. They are indeed important.

This is another type of seal that has been used on recent programs. I would like to confine my remarks to the stress relief and the butt seal type of geometry today.

We are looking at another version (Slide) of butt seal geometry on our program. It will have a stress relief

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member in it and the ceramic backup rings. These backup rings add one and a half to two times the tensile strength to the ceramic structure simply by adding rigidity to this member or this member.

(Slide.) The only reason this is turned down is to lower the height which we find convenient in cells that we fly at Hughes. This will be made with an active metal mix type of process. We will be using the 999 alumina from Coors in this structure. We will be evaluating this seal which may not be exactly the final design. (Slide.)

This one and this one, with perhaps different braze alloys in here. There is no -- this is not to degrade this seal. I feel that these are of equal quality when the process is controlled.

with regard to the ceramic used on the GE seal,
my only comment would be that if the small grain size material
were used, it could greately enhance the tensile strength
of the structure, particularly in light of the expansion
coefficient of the nickel used.

May we have the lights, please.

In summary, I would like to say that the active metal or systems using titanium are preferable for our application. However they are one shot processes, which is not objectionable here. Namely, the whole metal ceramic is made in one pass through a vacuum furnace in contrast to a

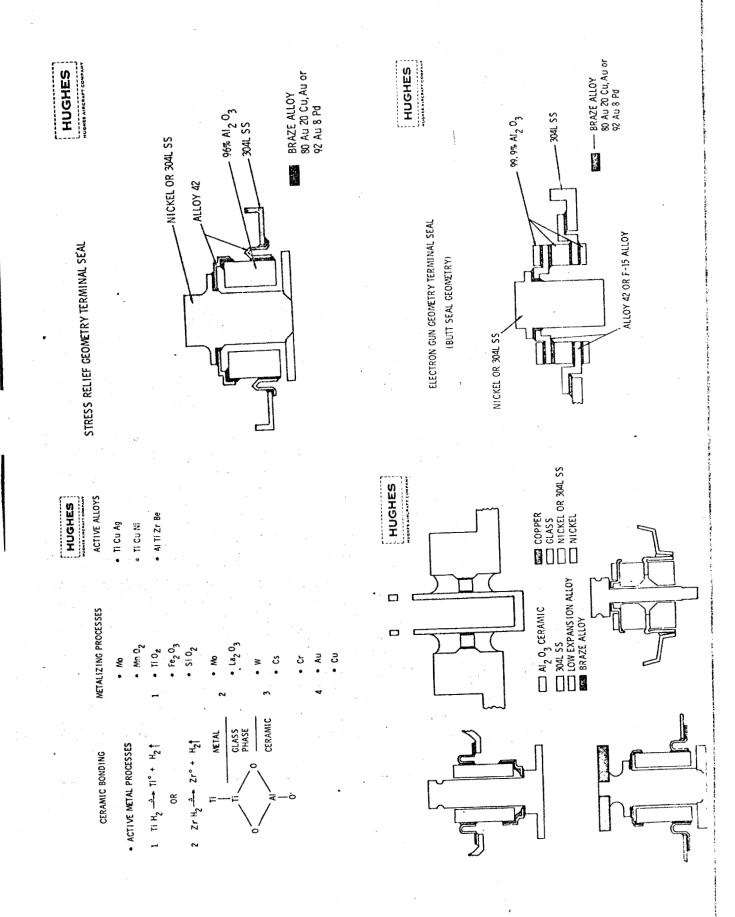
eral Reporters, Inc. molymanganese process which can be used essentially and why it's preferred in the tube industry. They can build up very complex structures by using braze alloys that are 10 to 15 degrees C lower so that they can build up the whole sequence of 10 different brazes.

The molymanganese with its glassy phase is not desirable. There is something else to note. Namely that in the stress relief type of seal you are making your bonds to the circumferential surfaces. This generally means you have to paint the mix on by hand. It's a handbrush operation and a machine revolves the ceramic, whereas in the butt seal structure, because of the flat surfaces, you can, it can lend itself to a silk screening process that can perhaps be controlled to a better extent as far as thickness.

Further, the butt seals can make use of braze forms of generally two mills thickness that will control the braze alloy thickness and also the butt seal is not sensitive to this alignment problem that I referred to before on these two seals.

The other problem is that in a stress relief type seal you are generally requiring your braze alloy to float down or to flow up whereas the braze alloy in a structure (Slide) like this being a braze form of say 2 mills thick is right there. All it has to do is melt or flow.

I tried to put into perspective the different



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things that we must consider and how they interact. I am sure I have only just touched on the surface.

Thank you.

(Applause.)

HENNIGAN: Do you have any questions for Bob Steinhauer.

Dr. Will?

WILL: Will, G.E. I would like to comment on the use of copper alloy brazes in batteries. While you are completely correct in that when copper is used in a negative plate this use is all right and this is because there is cathodic protection involved for the copper used in the negative plate.

However, one can consider the brazed material as a piece of electrode, an open circuit, and you can therefore no longer apply the thermodynamic data which you have presented in one of your tables. Under those conditions, when you have the presence of oxygen, which is something during overcharging of the cell, and in the simultaneous presence of KOH, copper acts as an exceedingly efficient getter for oxygen recombination. You form first cuprous oxide, which is highly insoluable.

However then it is unavoidable that you form cupric hydroxide which dissolves exceedingly efficiently as cuprate irons.

STEINHAUER: The seals that are used do use the copper but they do have protection, I should add. The

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The suppliers either use materials that cover the copper surface -- this is one way of getting around that.

COHN: Cohn, NASA.

Do you have any data on fatigue life as a function of pressure cycling both the number of cycles and the extent of excursion in pressure.

STEINHAUER: No, but I think for the pressures that we are talking about, this would not be too much of a factor. The active metal seals generally have tensile strengths in range of six to eight thousand PSI and the molymanganese seals are well up in the 15,000 range.

COHN: It may surprise you to learn that for the implant batteries for the heart pacers, the mode of failure is not that the battery gives but that the wires break so you may find that you will get some surprises when you make some actual tests about what happens when the seal is pressure cycled.

STEINHAUER: Could I comment to that. On qual level vibrations, which is where I would be particularly concerned, we have never seen a failure at a seal, spacecraft shaking or a battery shake test.

BOWER: Do you have a method of accelerated testing on these seals? We are talking five to ten years.

STEINHAUER: No, our plan is really to immerse them in KOH solutions, apply potentials just below the gassing

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potentials and cycle them with positive and reverse polarities metallurgically cross-sectioned and, and also analyze the solutions. We may run microameter corrosion checks on the materials that are used. Unfortunately this is a small portion of our program percentagewise and we can't go into it in the depth we would like to.

HENNIGAN: John Leuthard?

LEUTHARD. Leuthard. Martin Marietta.

Am I right, I want to understand something. In this ceramic, when we are talking about 99.9 percent minimum alumina, is the other one-tenth of a percent the controlled number of elements and have a reason for being in this total mixture, or what is the 99.9, what does it mean?

STEINHAUER: It means you are guaranteed that minimum. You generally have to have other fluxing elements in the body when it is fired at high temperature to cause those particals to adhere. You are bringing up a very important point. We must know what the other tenth of a percent is. And that is why I was dwelling on that one table which fluxing agents are preferable.

LEUTHARD: That's what made me think of it.

When I saw different elements in different columns, there must
be a reason for those elements--

STEINHAUER: Yes. In general, my recommendation is to minimize silica but you could put in things that are not

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bothered by the KOH. In other words, you may well be able to use a lower than a 999 body if the other minor percentage elements are compatible with our system.

LEUTHARD: Then is the slection of the purity and the additional elements that are within this total compound a function of the manufacturer for that particular ceramic?

STEINHAUER: Yes. The ceramic must be carefully selected. The third think of course is the crystal sizes.

That is the flexural strength.

HENNIGAN: Steve Gaston.

GASTON: I didn't notice in your sketches any parting materials in the void areas which are quite often used. In your program do you plan to use any parting materials to fillethese void areas?

should have integrity in itself and therefore we would prefer to leave those parting or auxiliary aids to preclude attack of seal out and to evaluate the materials that we have in the seal. If we put in the parting materials it may cloud the results.

GASTON: I have one more comment, on the 99.9 percent Coors material, there is a substantial cost increase going into that material, I heard?

STEINHAUER: Yes. In R&D quantities which I just checked into that cost increase can be something like 16 times.

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However, in quantities that we would buy for a spacecraft program, that may only be a factor of, I don't know, two to four. Projecting that into the cost increase on the metal ceramic structure that may only mean an increase of somewhere see the ceramic is not the total cost. The structure may increase by \$5 to \$10, apiece.

HENNIGAN: Wil Scott?

SCOTT: Scott from TRW.

Sometime ago in discussing this problem with I believe it was American Lava, they made the point that they felt that it was not, I won't say possible, but not practical to make a braze to alumina bond without having a reasonable level of silica content in the ceramic material because they could not get adequate strength to the bond. And they were talking about levels of silica well in excess of a few tenths of a percent. Would you comment on that?

STEINHAUER: Yes. Different metalizing processes that are used around the country, if you want to go after proprietary things, those are the most proprietary that I have seen in the tube field. You either have to have a glassy phase that I mentioned in the ceramic or in the metalizing that you apply to it. Now the nice part about the glassy phase and the active metal mix or the GE process is that it uses the oxide of the ceramic itself. Namely the alumina. Also, American Lava is in the ceramic metalizing structures field

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too and what you find is possible at one supplier is not necessarily true at another. It just depends on the process.

I am saying that it can be done with this high level of alumina and as an example of that I point to the vistal or lukolux which is an extremely high alumina and can be done with these processed.

SCOTT: You showed I believe an increase in a factor of two in the flexural strength of the ceramic material in going from 95 or so to 99 plus percent.

Do you consider that factor of two in that range of strength very desirable or necessary?

point that I was making about the brittleness of the braze alloy. Where you have to worry is right in that place where you are forming the glassy phase, and particularly in the use of titania. It will penetrate into the ceramic causing a failure—namely, a weakening of the ceramic itself. And therefore, I consider this a very significant point.

If you will notice the three nines alumina, the small grain size versus the vistal or TE has alucolux of large grain size you can see the difference -- same purity material but different grain size.

SCOTT: I gather that this difference is most important if you go to some of the harder and less ductil brazing alloys. Is it as important if you use the more ductil silver copper alloys.

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STEINHAUER: No, it is not, that's correct.

SCOTT: One last question. You I think rightly so generally mentioned the problem of silver. But have you actually observed cases of silver migration causing a problem in any of the recent vintage of terminals produced in the last few years in nickel cadmium cells?

STEINHAUER: Personal observations, no. And perhaps the organics, the filling materials are precluding that problem.

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The eutectic alloys would definitely inhibit this but it won't stop it.

HENNIGAN: A comment from the fellow from Ceramaseal?

BREDBENNER: (Ceramaseal, Inc.)I just want to make two comments on the nickel titanium butt seal approach that Bob was discussing.

At the temperatures that this seal must be made, titanium becomes a tremendous getter and it will absorb everything in sight, including primarily oxygen, one of the materials, which requires real close processing and tremendous vacuum, probably in the range of 10 to the minus 8 tor or better, which is a real problem in achieving in most cases. It requires real special equipment.

Secondly, this material that it does getter, when the braze melts the nickel-titanium eutectic is formed and any of these materials that have been gettered produce a slag which floats to the junction of the seal; and on solidifying you have a pretty junky seal.

HENNIGAN: We would like to move on to the next speaker. If there are further questions -- well, one more from Mr. Turner.

about the high silica bodies and failure because of the silica in the body, so you expect that if you use the high silica body such as the lava body with 3 percent of silica or more, would

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you expect the failure through the body or through the seal adjacent to the area where the seal is connected to the body?

again, I am pointing out desirable things. I have never seen a failure of this type. The high silication the body may be perfectly acceptable for ten years, but we are talking about the difference between the terminal seals that we have used and tested, for instance on the NED? crane programs two, four, five and six years versus missions we have to look into now in the seven to ten year category.

In other words, we just don't know whether these seals will go that long and we ought to be thinking about upgrading them.

HENNIGAN: We would to move on to the next speaker here, Mr. Ed McHenry of Bell Telephone, who is going to talk on the Modifications to the Ziegler Seal.

MC HENRY: (Bell Telephone Lab) This will just be a review of the talk I gave at Atlantic City.

The first thing I would like to talk about is the thermal cycle test that we use to evaluate our seals. It is sort of a qualitative test and we felt that with a plastic compression seal, we don't have too much in the way of chemical problems except perhaps nylon will eventually at higher temperatures dissolve. But generally I think the plastic seals fail due to fatigue. The oxygen pressure changes

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inside the cell and the change in temperature will cause a thermal compression and contraction of the gasket material, so we chose this thermal cycle test to essentially give us a fatigue test which probably is the major cause of failure.

(Slide.)

Here I show the thermal cycle test that we used.

We used temperature extremes of minus 40 and plus 160 F.

because these are the extremes that we expect not to exceed in Bell System use.

It was a two-hour cycle; it is about 40 minutes at the low temperature; it took 20 minutes to go up to the higher temperature and then 40 more minutes at the high temperature and 20 minutes down to the lower temperature.

This cycle was continued 24 hours a day, seven days a week, so we get 12 cycles a day. We would test them at the end of each day for the first week so would have every 12 cycles. The test method was simply to wet some wide-range pH paper and place it on the seal and leave it there for about five minutes and any KOH that had leaked out would be indicated by a change in pH, and a pH of about nine was considered to show that we had leaked enough KOH to call the cell a leaker.

(Slide.)

Here we show seal performance at constant overcharge versus thermal cycle. The A, B, C and D were D cells of various manufacturers; they were tested at constant overcharge

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at various temperatures, different cells in the same group.

Some were run at 32, some at 20 F. and some at room temperature.

This is just a conglomerate of all of them.

There was one particular manufacturer where none of their seals failed and some were better than others.

We ran cells of the same group, not the same cells that we had run at the top there, but cells taken from the same lot were run on thermal cycle and we find that the A is much better on thermal cycle than B, C, and D in the same order.

This is a qualitative test, you don't exactly predict the number of days anything is going to last but you can say that A is better than B and that B is better than C. And we see that it took 20 days to do the same thing we learned in 240 days.

So it seems to be a pretty good qualitative test to tell whether you have a good seal or bad seal. Generally speaking, in our observations of all the seals we have used, this does follow -- the Amis always good no matter what we do with it and they do stay in that same qualitative order.

(Slide.) (3)

Here we show the Ziegler seal developed for submarine cable a long time ago. It consists of a nickel barrel that is brazed into the lid of the cell. We have a kell-r r bushing which screws into the nickel barrel and the

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lead wire is inserted inside the bushing. This thing is compressed; it is reduced in diameter by about 6 percent from 250 thousandths down to 234. This compresses the bushing and the threads prevent the bushing from extruding out the ends and maintains a very high hydrostatic pressure in the middle.

These things will take something like 30,000 pounds per square inch hydrostatic pressure for submarine cable work, so they withstand more pressure than the cam will.

We had used them on some experimental Telstar batteries. We had about 50 of these and 50 glass seals and 400 ceramic-to-metal seals, but these we made eight years ago and were of the molymanganese type -- the ceramic seal was, the binder there. I don't know much about it but that is what it said it was.

Perhaps the newer ceramic-to-metal seals have avoided some of the problems that these old ones had. But we found that all the glass seals leaked within about four years. This was at constant overcharge, about C over 100, I believe it was, and room temperature. All the cells had run through a preliminary vibration test, simulating rockets and a couple of characterization cycles, but, generally, essentially all we had was about four years of constant overcharge at C over 100 and then another four years of just open circuit stand.

At the end of the four years we found that all of the glass-to-metal seals were leaking, half the ceramic-to-

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metal seals were leaking. At the end of eight years we have everything but the Ziegler seal leaking and none of these had leaked at all, or at least to where you could detect with the pH paper. A calculation of the gas permeabilities and all says you lose about lcc atmosphere per 1,000 years of oxygen diffusing through this, provided it doesn't have a leak path; but if it just has to diffuse through the plastic there really isn't much of a problem there.

The problem with this seal is that you do have to machine the threads very carefully; they must match exactly and you have to use this rounded Whitworth thread so that when you compress you don't have sharp roots in the bottom of the threads because they will leave a helical leakage path and the seal would fail.

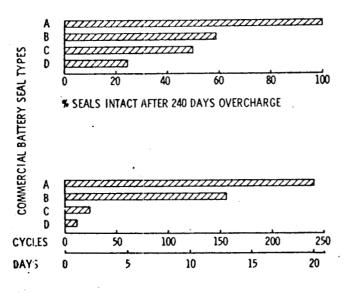
So it does have to be carefully machined with the special thread, but if done correctly it works very well.

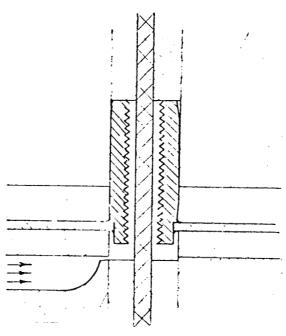
(Slide.)

Here we have gone to injection molding to form our bushing. The yellow portion is the injection molded material; the red is the nickel barrel which is brazed into the red lid; and the green is the lead wire. This can be done very simply and easily and it avoids the use of a carefully-machined thread. You can cut the thread with anything. We used an old, dull, 8/32 tap to just cut some sort of thread in there and then yourinjection mold.

SEAL PERFORMANCE
CONSTANT OVERCHARGE VS THERMAL CYCLE

INJECTION MOLD FOR ZIEGLER SEAL





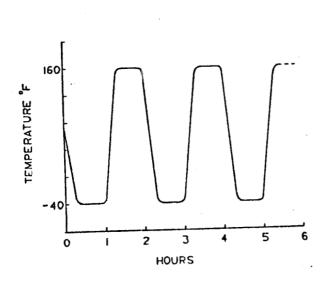
THERMAL CYCLE TEST TEMPERATURE PROFILE

THREADED
NI BARREL

-BRAZED JOINT

CELL COVER

CONSTRUCTION OF ZIEGLER SEAL



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I did use nylon 6/6 for this. I used a number of nylons. The nylon 6/6 was best in the sense that it takes more heat when you weld the cover on; you tend to heat the thing up, but ideally you weld the cover on before you crimp it then you don't have to worry about any kind of problems there.

(Slide.)

This shows the difference in threads. The top thread was machined by one of the local machine shops. It is very uniform and both of these seals have been cycled and the bottom thread shows injection-molded seal, and you cannot really do much worse a job of threading it; but this is perfectly adequate.

You have no trouble with this kind of thread. We had no leakage of any kind.

(Slide.)

Here I show the BTL which consists of all the Ziegler seals; these are injection-molded or the kel-F machine. The other lines are the A, B, C and D of the previous bar graph but they were of a later manufacture date. It is a D cell of the same manufacturer but apparently, well, at least the one seal went 1600 or 2,000 scycles without failure. A couple of them did, but in general these are just regular D cells and they fail very early in this kind of test.

You can see the Ziegler seal is much, much better.

In fact, at 2,000 cycles at shows no failure whatever, so I

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feel that you just aren't going to get that much fatigue in normal lifetime. If they do fail it will probably be from long-term chemical attack on the nylon.

We didn't do any kel-F seals because we couldn't injection mold them. Apparently you can injection mold the kel-F but we can't, not on the machine we have in the lab.

This represents nylon injection molding and the Ziegler seals.

Then we tried to use the same principles as used in the Ziegler seals but we tried to make it a little bit cheaper.

(Slide.)

On this slide we developed a new type of seal.

Here we just have a metal tubing. You can make it as long as the cell. You put a plastic tubing inside that and the lead wire and crimp it every eighth of an inch. It doesn't have to be an eighth of an inch but I did it every eighth of an inch.

Then this thing is welded on top of the cell. I didn't show a safety vent or anything of that kind. You would have to put something of that kind in the fill tube,

This is a very simple seal to put together; it can be made in any length. It has the advantage that if you change the design of the cell a little bit you don't have to change the design of the seal; you just braze it into a little bit bigger top or smaller top. Or you can cut it a little bit shorter, but there is no great change in design required.

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Here we show some of the little cells that I have made. This D cell here has this type of seal in it; it extends

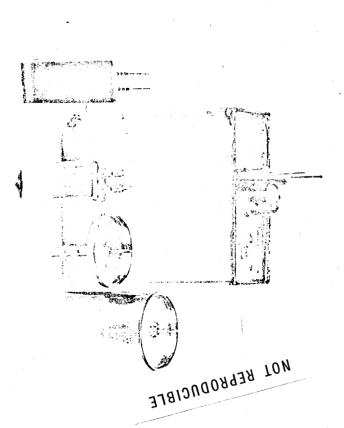
The crimping is exactly the same.

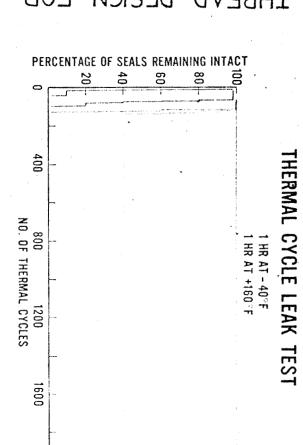
Now I have made cells of various kinds using this I have some that are 3/8" long with only two crimps. I would have a graph of the data except that it is exactly the same as the Ziegler seal data. They don't leak if you use a nylon tubing there. I used nylon 6/6.

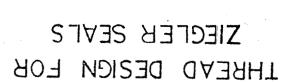
They just cycle on an on for a thousand cycles to two thousand cycles. I just don't have any failures. There is one way you can make them fail, you can overheat If you run them up over 200 F. the plastic will begin them. to relax and it won't hold its compression; but the thing is, you have to avoid heating them that high.

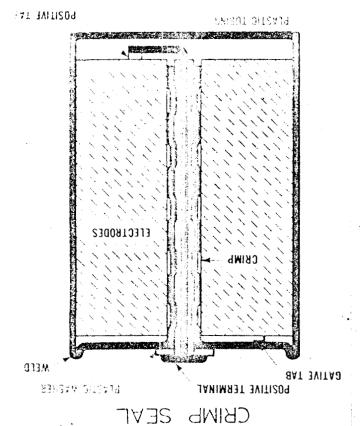
You can also injection mold this kind of seal, So when you injection mold you essentially avoid all the assembly problems; you cannot scratch the plastic tubing or anything of that kind. It is very easy to put together. don't need much in the way of high caliber people. It is very quick. It should be quite cheap.

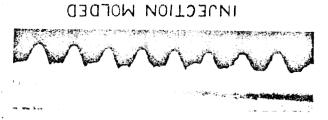
I suspect you could make them for probably 15 or 20 cents. You just need a tube and you braze a hole bunch of them in one shot. You just put it in a crimper and crimp. So it is not an expensive sort of thing.











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ral Reporters, Inc. down inside the cell. That was injection molded and it is a little bit rounder than the others, but you can make them of various sizes.

The bigger cell is this 20 ampere-hour cell with two Ziegler seals injection molded on the top of it.

Then we have two 3/8" long seals, they are 1/8" in diameter and 3/8" long. On the end there is a little small cell we have which is a 100 milliampere-hour cell with two 50 mill diameter seals, the outside diameter of the seal, and they are 3/16" long, I believe, and they have a 15 mill wire running through them.

That is a polypropalene tubing. All the rest were nylon but that particular one we used polypropalene because what we did was coat the wire. If you get very, very small, the tolerances that you require, the 1 mil tolerance that you use to put your tubes together is a good portion of the total diameter so that you don't want any slop if you can avoid it. If you coat the wire you don't have any tolerance between the wire and the plastic tubing on the inside.

These have all gone over 1,000 cycles, thermal cycles, except for the polypropalene which has gone 200 and some cycles and I don't know whether it is going to fail or what it is going to do.

That is essentially all I have.

(Applause.)

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HENNIGAN: Do you have any questions for Mr. McHenry? We have time for a few.

Bill Harsch?

HARSCH: (Eagle PitcherCo.) I am just curious about the seals that you had on test, I think you said, eight years?

MC HENRY: Yes, these were the Ziegler seal, the machined kel-F bushing and they were carefully assembled.

HARSCH: Have any of these seals been taken off of test and say, cross-sectioned under anything like that?

MC HENRY: No, we haven't taken any off. I have one that I should have done that to. Deal will say why haven't I, but I haven't actually done it yet.

HARSCH: I am just wondering if there is a potential leakage path where it is in the seal?

MC HENRY: I didn't do any of the work on this,
of course; that was done years ago. There were some higher
temperature tests done originally where they put them in KOH
and stewed them in oxygen and things and raised the temperature;
when they got up over 200 -- I think it was 250 or so F. -you did get leakage paths up along the thread; but as you get
too hot the kel-F simply cannot support that pressure anymore
and it begins to extrude.

But is is just not a high-temperature seal; generally speaking, say if you use a nylon separator you

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cannot heat it anyway.

diameter increases?

HENNIGAN: Mr. Bredbenner from Ceramaseal?

BREDBENNER: My question is, what diameter can you go to in this? I would imagine this type of seal is limited in maintaining hydrostatic stress on that kel-F as the

MC HENRY: I am not sure; we haven't gone up. I think there was a government contract where somebody did.

They scaled up -- I think it was Texas Instrument -- scaled up some of the Ziegler seals and they were perfectly fine except you couldn't sterilize them. But otherwise they stood up very well. I think with about 1/8" diameter wire or something of that kind.

VOICE: 1/4" diameter.

MC HENRY: 1/4" diameter? So I think you can scale them up, but I would imagine though what you would do is -- the thickness of the wall of the plastic would probably remain about the same. In other words, right now you have a 50 mill wire and about a 50 mill wall of plastic. I think even if you had 1/4" cam in the wire you wouldn't want to make that plastic much thicker.

I don't really know. I don't see any reason why it wouldn't and it doesn't seem to in what scaling has been done. But I couldn't answer that.

The one think you would have to avoid is, if you

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short your battery and get a very heavy current to this wire you have to have a hefty enough wire that it won't heat to the point where you melt your seal, but in a spacecraft if you short out the battery I presume there is nothing you can do about it anyway.

There is time for one more question. HENNIGAN: We would like to move on because Dr. Park might have scmething planned this afternoon and we will try to get him in before lunch.

Bob Steinhauer? Will you be here this afternoon? STEINHAUER: (Hughes) Not on the seals, but out of curiosity, on the B cell, how did you make that negative tab weld; it doesn't seem like you have too much room there?

MC HENRY: How did we make the negative tab weld? Let me see.

What we did was just take the guts out of a regular D cell and put them inside of the cell, and there is a little tab hanging out and you weld it to the lid. It was on the seal when we put it together.

STEINHAUER: This was a spiral?

MC HENRY: Yes.

STEINHAUER: It seemed like you had to get in between the top of the spiral and the bottom of the cover.

MC HENRY: Well, what you do -- that is not a very good schematic -- you bend the tab this way so it folds up like srs 14

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an accordion when you put it together. I guess they pretty well do that now when they put the lids on cans, anyway, when they weld them up?

HENNIGAN: I would like to have Dr. Park of
Goddard Materials Group give some of the results of an analysis
of actual cells that we have used for spacegroup programs.

Dr. Park.

PARK: (Goddard) I would like to mention that perhaps you really don't care to hear about what I am going to talk about. We would have to call these failures.

There really aren't too many, which you may prefer, but they are actual failures and this is sort of an example of what we do because we are in the Materials Engineering Branch:

We are available for consultation and also for failure analysis.

One of the examples that we received was a nickel-cadmium six ampere-hour cell, numbered 149 and 151. Taking it open, we got what is shown in the first slide.

(Slide.)

This was most interesting because of this area right over in here where you see we have apparently loose material coming off. We had been told this was a nickelplate. This particular seal came out of the battery cell No. 151; it was actually the positive electrode, and 151 had received -- let's see, it was tested at 25 degrees C. to a 25 percent

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depth of discharge.

Looking at Cell No. 149, we didn't see this at all and yet Cell No. 149 was tested at 40 degrees C. to a 25 percent depth of discharge.

I might add we haven't opened many of these cells but this, I presume, would be a potentially bad situation to have in any of your cells.

One other example is shown in the next slide.

(Slide.)

This is from General Electric's 100 ampere-hour cell. This looks extremely bad but it's the advantage of an electronic scanning microscope that you can see such depth of focus and this actually might be at about 250 magnification; and yet a spot was visible without any magnification along the brazed area.

Well, seeing a spot like this, you would like to see how deep it is, but we also can look at it another way, as shown in the next slide.

(Slide.)

This is X-ray penetration. As you may be aware, there are a number of concentric circles of ceramic, of metal, of holes, actually, and thus the X-rays pass through where they can and in an area like this they pass through very easily; we we concluded that this was the area of the hole.

The best way to look at that is to section it and to

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try to grind down so that we could see how deep that hole goes.

As indicated in the previous slide, it didn't look too bad and yet you cannot tell much from the surface, so, in the next slide,

(Slide.)

you can see how long it did extend. This actually, up here, is not quite at the edge of the material and asithiskgoescoas up farther and as we come down here you can see how long it is; and the question is, does it continue any farther. For the benefit of the G.E. people, I would have to say it probably doesn't, and I think it ends about here in this area. this is a surface we cannot necessarily tell whether it goes to the left or to the right, but it does appear as though a short distance on we reach the end of this hole.

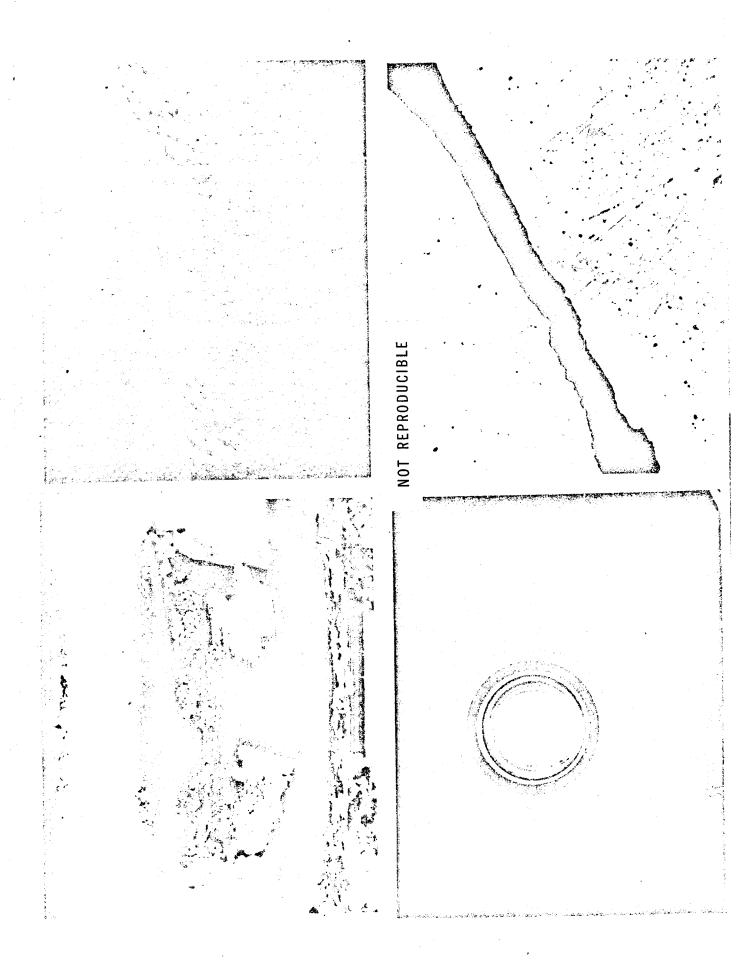
However, it is a good proportion of the total length of the brazed area which is obviously not as they desired.

In the next case, this was from a Gulton battery, serial No. 227; it was called an intermittent leaker. We had a leak rate of 6.03 times 10 to the minus 8 standard cc's per second, which doesn't sound bad at all.

We could detect a leak when we had a differential pressure of about 20 pounds of helium and thus we could look for bubbles.

(Slide.)

In this slide you may have trouble finding where the



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hole is, but right in there. This is a relatively small area but here again it was visible without magnification. This magnification is on the order of 15X. Now here again we did decide to section it and look deeper into this, and, in the next slide

(Slide.)

it doesn't look bad, particularly up here. This is where the hole had been and this is the brazed area, I might add, here.

There is obviously a hole down here, maybe a gas pocket and another one down here; but there is apparently no continuous path from this point down into the cell. However, in the next slide --

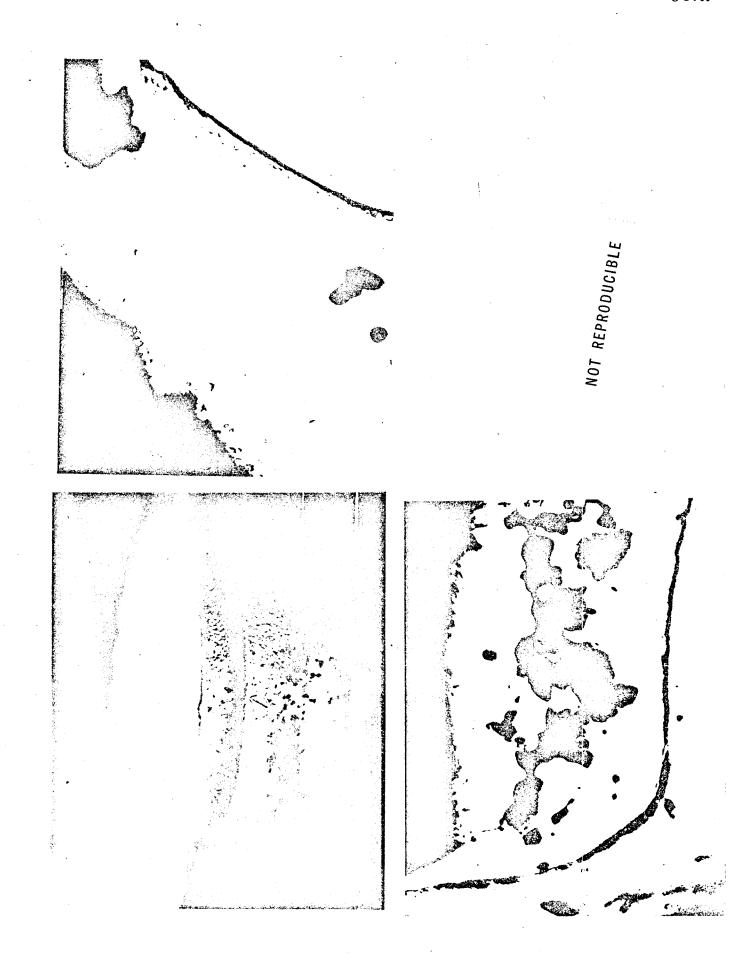
(Slide.)

-- you can see that there is indeed a continuous leak path.

This is rather tortuous. For example, you have real good
gates all the way through to the outside and very possibly right
in here is where the actual leak did occur.

These really are the only bad examples I had of possible failures and I would like to point out that as I did in describing them, these areas were visible to the naked eye; they would be even more visible at say 20% or 40%, which isn't very high. You don't need to go to a scanning electron microscope to find them.

I might also add that the X-ray did indicate that there was a very suspicious area and it is obviously easier to



me if find these suspicious areas before you have even put them into a cell, you will be way ahead without having to go through a life-cycle testing to find out that, yes, you did have a leak.

Thank you.

(Applause.)

SENNIGAN: We have a question from Fred Betz.

BETZ: (Gulton) It is really on the order of a comment. Both of those seals and the serial numbers of the cells represent what I believe to be a design that has been discontinued for about three years. We did recognize the deficiency in the seal design; it has been corrected to the design that Bob Steinhauer showed. There is one other thing I wanted to mention but I forgot what it was.

These are quite early cells as far as the design.

PARK: Yes, that is very possible. It is encouraging that once you can recognize this type of failure, why there is a way of getting around it. And it is encouraging that these have been changed or improved.

BETZ: I think the other factor was we do use a visual microscopic examination of our brazed joints on all of our seals now.

PARK: Yes, I feel that that is a very good quality assurance procedure to follow.

As pointed out in one slide, it didn't look like one

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hole was very large, yet it did continue on into the cell itself.

> HENNIGAN: Are there any further questions? Bob Steinhauer?

STEINHAUER: (Hughes) Perhaps Fred Betz answered the question, but on your first slide, was that one of the seals that Fred was referring to? You did not comment upon the gray area moving up from the bottom along that ceramic as being a possible failure.

PARK: No, I thought that was more the lighting of the picture itself; it was more of an artifact.

BETZ: That was pure silver, I believe, with a bright silver play, both of which have been discontinued.

> HENNIGAN: There is time for one more question. Sid Gross?

GROSS: (Boeing) We have tried to determine if we can inspect ceramic seals with X-rays to detect flaws as a screening method. It is very difficult to take X-rays because of the geometry. However, if you really bend over backward and take a number of X-rays at odd angles, you can do it.

The thing that we found is that you have not much difficulty in finding defects in most of the seals that we examined this way.

FORD: One point for clarification. The photograph of the 100 ampere-hour seal that you are examining was never

put on a cell. It was provided before it was used.

HENNIGAN: We will break for lunch.

One more question. We have to make the cafeteria by 1:00 o'clock.

Go ahead, Bill.

also found that this was a difficult procedure? Did your experience correlate with Sid Gross' experience? It takes X-ray photographs from various angles to be able to see these failures.

PARK: I might add that we didn't have any real problem in taking these. We did go through a -- let us say five different kilovolt settings and let it go at that. We picked out the best one and these were straight-on shots and offered no real problem at all.

It may have been an advantage that we had cut cell open and had been easy to get at, but this should normally be carried out before they are put into a cell.

HENNIGAN: Any of the speakers for this afternoon,

I wonder if they would come down and talk to Bill Billerbeck

in the corner over here. Bill, stand up for a minute so

everybody can coordinate with him in the afternoon session.

Whereupon, at 12:55 p.m., the meeting was adjourned to reconvene at 2:00 p.m. this same day.)

Session 4 - NEW DEVELOPMENTS - W. BILLERBECK, CHAIRMAN

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I thought that Chuck McKenzie's keynote speech that

HALPERT: Can we take our seats, please, and start the afternoon session.

We plan to go into our fourth session and at the end of this fourth session, after completing the work on new devices, we will try and then summarize some of the work that we have accomplished here today and maybe list some of the items that we ought to be doing in the future in order to bring about a more reliable system.

So, at this time, I would like to introduce our chairman for the fourth session, Bill Billerbeck, who is Manager of the Electric Power Branch at COMSAT Labs and the gentleman who is chairing the Specifications Committee for the high reliability nickel-cadium cells.

I present to you Bill Billerbeck.

BILLERBECK: Thank you, Gerry. Good afternoon, gentlemen. This session is entitled "New Developments." I guess that means that we are up with the present state of the art of nickel-cadmium cells.

We have been through all that in the last couple of days, so we are going to try to have a series of relatively short presentations on new technology, new test techniques, new developments in nickel-cadmium cell technology and advanced energy storage techniques.

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we had at the start of this meeting was particularly appropriate in pointing out that the requirements for aerospace batteries have been changing considerably in the last couple of years.

We still have some of the experimental, short-life type of spacecraft with us but we also have some other needs.

One of these is this need for much longer life, the order of five or ten years. In many cases it is principally in the scorage mode with perhaps a few deep cycles a year, like 100 cycles.

These requirements stem from the application-type spacecraft in synchronous orbits, used for communication, navigation, meteorology and earch resources. We also have the long interplanetary missions, those requirements now.

So I want to point out that these are becoming a larger portion of the aerospace battery business at this point in time and so much more work is needed to understand and improve the performance of the ni-cad cell under these conditions.

I think this afternoon we have several interesting papers on testing devices that will help us in this area to understand cell performance.

Looking further ahead, I think another need that is becoming more important is the need for improvements in energy density, and I think that one can say that there is a need for improvement in the ni-cad cell performance, and I think we can go quite a long ways there in energy density; and also in

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couples with higher energy density capability. We we have several papers this afternoon on silver-zinc and possibly a paper on zinc-air.

Then, just recapping for a second, the two papers on test techniques are Bill Webster of NASA, Goddard; Jim Stemmle of NASA, Goddard; and we have Dr. Reed from Battelle on a plaque structure for nickel-cad; and then we have Bill Nagle from NASA-Lewis Lab on silver-zinc; Dr. Mikkelson from General Dynamics on silver-zinc and Tom Hennigan on automatically activated silver-zinc.

Those are the papers and without further introduction,

I would like to ask Bill Webster to give his presentation.

WEBSTER: (NASA, Goddard) Thank you very much.

One of the disadvantages of being the host is sometimes your boss volunteers you for talks before the work is completed, so this is really an interim report on some work that is currently underway and Tom thought that it might be nice, since we just had our first results come in, to make you aware of what we are doing and possibly if it is of interest to you then we can give you some hints to accelerate this application for your own use.

What we are doing is looking at strain gages as a technique for monitoring pressure in a cell. Quite a bit of work has been done and most of the absolute measurements have been made with pressure transducers, but spacecraft managers

here at Goddard and possibly in private industry don't buy the concept of flying a \$350 pressure transducer on top of a cell.

Also, this pressure transducer is usually attached by a mechanical means through a fill tube which is structurally a

very poor mode of attachment.

These pressure transducers are bulky and they are expensive.

The other type of pressure measurement that most people are familiar with is the adhydrode or signal electrode. This is mounted internal to a cell and is used to sense oxygen pressure. It is not an absolute measurement of oxygen pressure but just an indication and at low pressures is an excellent indicator.

The other disadvantage of this type of electrode is that in a flooded cell it does not work or in a wet cell, not necessarily flooded but wet, I am doing some research right now with calorimetry and my first 100 ampere-hour cell that I have been playing around with has such a signal electrode in it.

In order to get good transfer between these large plates, more electrolyte than usual is used. The third electrode in this particular case is not working, oxygen is being generated and the rate of diffusion for this electrode is extremely slow, so that you are many hours behind what is actually occurring in the cell.

We started playing around with this idea of strain

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reporters, inc. I gages as far back as 1967 and it has been the type of effort where it has cost the government only our time and only when we can spare it, which is becoming less and less.

What we are doing is using a wheatstone bridge 5 circuit in which the opposing legs of the wheatstone bridge 6 are the strain gages which measure the strain on the bottom of the cell. The other two legs of the wheatstone bridge are strain gages mounted on a metal tab which is welded to the bottom of the cell. These two are to serve as a temperature compensating loop of this circuit.

(Slide)

This is a crude drawing of the bottom of a 20 amperehour cell. These two strain gages located in the center of the cell will measure the actual strain that the bottom experiences when pressure is generated.

Right here is a well with a similar metal, same type of stainless steel, with two strain gages over here for the temperature compensating loop.

Our first trick that we discovered was that if you take two opposing legs of the wheatstone bridge and you use this for your strain gages you can double the output signal.

The next thing that crossed our mind was that most 20 ampere-hour cells for instance are comprised of 30 mill

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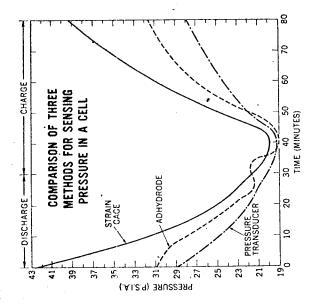
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thick stainless steel. And I asked myself and a mechanical engineer why. We couldn't come up with any good reason why.

We found out through some preliminary calculations by this gentleman that we could easily go to half this thickness and have a safety factor of at least threefold for pressures over 100 pounds.

so our next idea was to take the bottom of the cell and have the thickness of the metal on the bottom be half that of the rest of the cell, typically 15 mill. So we let a contract to Gulton Industries in 1968 to build us, oh, about half a dozen cells; and at that time they only had material available which was 19 mills thick, so we ended up with one-third as thick.

Well, then we let a contract in the nature of \$5,000 to NBS Mechanical Systems Group to apply strain gages to the bottom of this cell and to do the wiring for us and apply the best techniques known so we wouldn't have to worry about training chemists and engineers to do something which is already known.

The results that they found comparing a standard cell versus a cell where the bottom was one-third thinner was that we were again able to increase the output of the strain gage circuit by a factor of 3; so by using two strain gages as opposing legs we can double it by using one-third thinner we

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can triple the signal.

The reason why I am so concerned about increasing the strength of the signal, is that this signal is extremely It is in the order originally of 1 to 10 millivolts.

So, the next thing we inquired into was how do we get this back to earch? Does the electronics already exist? Of course, the answer is yes. People have been using strain gages for a long time.

We found out that there is a small space-qualified box approximately two inches square by one inch thick which acts as an exciter amplifier and it can excite a strain gage circuit and amplify the signal by a factor of a thousand. So now we are talking about sending back signals on the order of a volt.

Recently we received these cells back from the National Bureau of Standards and we have put them on test here in our laboratory. We have done a very minimal number of tests to this point. It consists of several conditioning charges at C over 10 for 16 hours and then one which we call typical OAO experiment.

Now the results of our 16 hour charge were figures like the following: The adhydrode signal over 16 hours for a dead-shorted cell at the end of one minute was reading 47 millivolts; at the end of five minutes, 37; at the end of 200 minutes, 29. So the adhydrode wasn't tracking the pressure tative of the 16 hours or equated to 16 hours, was 455 millivolts.

I spoke to Mr. Ford about this and he said this is common when you are working with a dead-shorted cell and starting it up for the first time, and he associates it with a certain activation of the electrodes involved.

The pressure transducers during the same time was very limear in responses as would be expected and it went from 51 millivolts to 82 millivolts, never decreasing or fluctuating.

The strain gage output ran from 7 millivolts to 12 millivolts, so you can see we are talking about extremely small

as a result of fluctuations in temperature.

These experiments were conducted at 20 degrees C.

Then we initiated what we call an OAO test regime.

In this regime we charged at 12 amps to a voltage clamp of 147;

then allowed the current to taper. We discharged at 6 amps for

30 minutes. This type of regime gave us 155 percent overcharge.

Now, we are not recommending this for all OAO but we are trying to measure the pressure, so that is what we were about, by having such a high overcharge.

We have also done other experiments where we have upped this voltage limit to 149; then we are talking about 200 percent overcharge.

The only data I had time to reduce for this meeting

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was this experiment with the voltage limit of 147 and an overcharge of 155 percent.

(Slide.)

Here we have a slide of that data for the 100th cycle. This was conducted at room temp -- well, not exactly room temperature -- in a temperature chamber at 20 degrees C.

This is a typical computer printout of the data and factors have been applied to the data. But you can see that in the 100th cycle we had a 90 minute orbit, 30 minutes of discharge and 60 charge.

We started out first with our discharge and then we go into our charge. Our baseline should be the pressure transducer; that is an absolute measurement. We are coming down off of the last end of overcharge at 29 pounds of pressure and dropping down by 10 minutes into the charge to approximately 19 pounds of pressure and then swinging on up.

The next curve I call your attention to is the adhydrode. The adhydrode also follows the pressure. This little whiffle in the curve at 30 minutes is where you change from charge to discharge. Because we can only plot versus one axis a number had to be multiplied by the millivolt output of the adhydrode and this makes this curve appear a little bit smoother than it really occurs. It is a sharper break than if you are just monitoring straight millivolt output, but you can see it also follows.

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Then we come to the strain gage and we have a perfect profile of the pressure in the cell. What are these numbers and what wer they multiplied by? In this particular cycle, the pressure transducer went from 75 millivolts to 115 millivolts and it was multiplied by a factor of 240.

The adhydrode had a swing from 310 millivolts to 516 millivolts and it was multiplied by a factor of 61.

The strain gage had a swing from 8 to 18 millivolts and was multiplied by 23,750. The voltages that the cell was experiencing at this time was a low of 126 to a high of 147,

So, what we are talking about in translating some of this into absolute values, is the strain gage delta was 10 millivolts, the pressure transducer was 40 millivolts and the adhydrode was 200 millivolts.

What we are proposing for the future is to construct a cell in which the bottom has a small area which has been milled down to a thickness of approximately 10 mills. This would be a small circle into which was placed the strain gages. What this would do would actually make the entire cell case act as a pressure transducer and would further enhance this output and would give us a reproducible surface.

We have not had time to analyze this data but there are two obvious problems that I can see right now. One would be of application, which technician put on strain gages on which day? So it would be very expensive to calibrate each single

cell.

had different welders and different stresses put on the bottom of each cell when it was constructed; but we feel by making this sort of pressure transducer out of the case and having a small area of a thinner construction than the rest of the bottom, that we can eliminate any hysterisis due from one welding application of one day to that of another day, and this pretty much is the state of our work at this time in this area.

(Applause.)

BILLERBECK: Do we have any questions?

STEINHAUER: (Hughes) Bill, is there any particular reason why the bottom of the cell was selected particularly if the silent cell was open and you could put your thinned out area midways along the side away from the weld areas?

WEBSTER: Thank you, Bob, for calling that to my attention. Yes, there was.

We turned this cell over originally to a group here at Goddard which put a particular light-sensitive material on the cell and then applied high pressure to the cell and then analyzed the cell for the area of greatest stress and most uniform stress. That was at the bottom, so that is why it was selected.

BILLERBECK: Other questions?

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All right. Thank you very much, Bill.

The next paper that we have is by Jim Stemmle from NASA, Goddard, and it is on sealable experimental cell case for nickel cadmium cells, and perhaps other uses, too.

STEMMLE: (Goddard) Thank you.

I envision this as a rather short talk. In fact I got into an argument with Gerry Halpert. Initially I thought I would talk 15 minutes but then when I looked at what I had to talk about I said five and he said no, you had better take ten. So I guess we will just have to see.

Suppose your job description says you are a research electrochemist and one day you hear somebody say something like if you put carbonate in the electrolyte, it advances the onset of gasing of the nickel electrode or some such thing as that. Wouldn't it be nice if you could go in to the shelf in your laboratory and pick off the shelf something like this?

(Slide.)

This is a resealable convenience experimental cell. We thought it would be nice, so we designed one. The features that this thing has are, one, it is flexible. If you notice in the top, and it will show up more clearly on later slides, there are six ceramic terminals, two of them for carrying a lot of current and four for carrying signals of various sorts for monitoring what is going on in the cell.

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The advantages of this thing are that, one, it has this flexibility, it is sealable, it can measure pressures, it can measure gasing characteristics; and, two, there is a cost reduction. Each time you want to make a cell you don't have to make an entirely new cell which you seal off and weld off and have to discard when you tear into it.

(Slide.)

Here is a picture of the header. There is a pipe coming out and the threads are 1/8" pipe. You can see clearly the two large current-carrying electrodes and the four smaller signal electrodes.

(Slide.)

The third slide is the reverse of this, showing the foot that we designed for attaching to current-carrying electrodes and the electrical connection to the auxiliary electrodes, coming out of their ports.

(Slide.)

The fourth slide shows the O-ring seal. The quarter there is not really a measure of how much it cost; it is to give you an idea of how big it is.

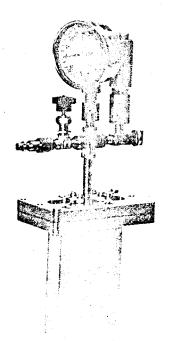
The O-ring which we bought was made of ethylene propylene which is resistant to KOH, according to the Parker Hanniford Company.

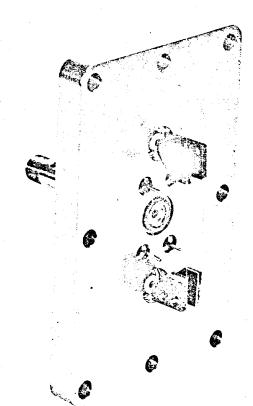
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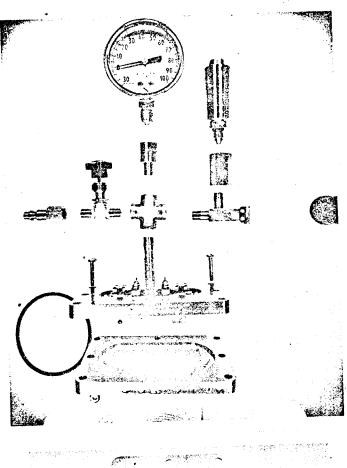
In the next slide we see an exploded view of the

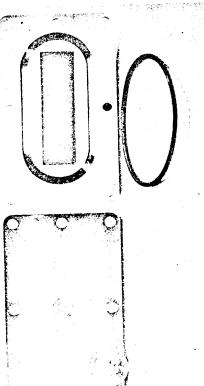


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convenience manifold. We have a gage, a pressure transducer, -let me see if I can point to these things -- we have a gas
sampling manifold there of Goddard's own design, a valve quick
disconnect fitting, and a pipe tee. The top and bottom are
just held together by machine screws.

The cost of the cell case, exclusive of the manifold is about \$565. The material could be either nickel or stainless steel. When we had these made there was a nickel strike so we had it made out of stainless steel, out of 304-L.

We also had at the same times some shims made so that you don't have to use an entire plate stack; this thing will hold a 20 ampere-hour plate stack, but you could do experiments on fewer electrodes than that and use shims to occupy the void volume.

We have run into some problems, probably not where you would expect to run into them. We have developed some leaks in the bottom edges of the can.

We had two or three leaks right on the corner. When I took it to a man to see where it was leaking, he told me it was going to be leaking around the ceramic seals but it wasn't.

The design is good. We have on hand about ten cells that have been holding 50 pounds of air for a month or so, just not dropping, so the design is good.

We also designed a small device for connecting signal electrodes to the feed-throughs. Maybe I will just try

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drawing one. It is simple enough that way. There is a hole going through here. There is a set screw going through here. Simple enough. We intend to weld the leads onto this metal and then fit this over the feed-through and tighten it down with set screws.

That is all I have to say, and I wonder if it was five or ten minutes?

(Applause.)

BILLERBECK: Do we have some questions on Mr. Stemmle's paper?

All right, if not, we will go on to Dr. Alan Reed from Battelle, and he is going to tell us about a new honeycomb plaque structure for nickel-cadmium electrodes.

I guess I had better give Jim back his baby here.

REED: I have just one that might be a Viewgraph -- not a Viewgraph but the overhead projector.

We at Battelle have developed a new type of porous nickel plaque that we made into cadmium electrodes. I might add that this has been developed on contract here with NASA, Goddard.

made by alternately stacking thin, electroformed, corrugated nickel foils and flat nickel foils. The foils are bonded in a hydrogen furnace and then they are sliced into plaques of the

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desired thickness; for example, 30 mills.

If I could have that overhead, it will show you a cross-section.

(Slide.)

This has been filled with epoxy and sectioned.

You will see that all the pores are uniform in size and shape, triangular; they are parallel to one another and each is connected directly to the surface of the plaque providing; the straight-through pore.

I think that is probably enough for the slide.

Lights, please.

We made these plaques with five different sizes of pores and the widest dimension of the pore in these various plaques that we have made ranged from 3.2 up to 10 mills, which is about a factor of 5 to 20 greater than the median pore diameter of a sintered powder plaque. Therefore the internal surface area of these plaques is much smaller than that of a sintered powder plaque, ranging from about .04 square meters per gram up to about .1 square meters per gram compared to one-quarter to one-half a square meter per gram for conventional sintered powder plaques.

we have developed some new technology in making these thin foils because we had to electroform pinhole free nickel foils as thin as about 2/10ths of a mill. This work involves careful preparation of machined mandrels with evenly

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spaced grooves onto which we electroformed the thin nickel foils and then stripped them off.

We described this work in a report that will be soon coming out under contract NASS-21105.

When these plaques are made into cadmium electrodes they have charge and discharge curves which are very similar to that of the conventional sentered powder plaques, in that one obtains a relatively flat charge and discharge plateau when measured versus the reference electrode.

We believe that this shows that the high internal surface area plaque is not necessarily for proper electrode performance; rather, the cadmium in the electrode forms its own high surface area, the little crystals of cadmium.

I have a photograph of one of these impregnated with cadmium. It wouldn't show up on this Viewgraph but it looks almost like sand packed into the end of these open pores.

We have also found that this charge-discharge performance is relatively insensitive to the size of the pores that we have made.

The whole purpose of this work was to build longlife electrodes by providing a porous structure which intuitively one things is more or less the ideal structure for porous electrodes. That is, all of the pores are of uniform size and they all are parallel connecting directly to the surface of the electrode. This design should help to maintain uniform current

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density and thus promote long life.

One of the pore sizes of these honeycomb electrodes did show a better performance as far as utilization goes than did the others. These plaques had a capacity of about 200 milliamp hours per square inch at the one hour rate compared to 280 milliamp hours per square inch for a sintered powder plaque operated at the same rate.

I believe, though, that by modifying or impregnation process we could increase the capacity of these honeycomb electrodes to a point where it is equivalent to a statered powder plaque.

I will say why I think that now. When these plaques were impregnated with the standard vacuum cadmium nitrate process they were found to require between two and three times as many impregnation cycles has were required for sintered powder plaques to reach the same loading of active material based on weight gain.

After we impregnated these to that point, they were analyzed chemically for cadmium and cadmium hydroxide and this analysis showed that a major portion of the impregnated active material was metallic cadmium, rather than cadmium hydroxide, as is found with sintered powder plaques.

Thus the electrochemical utilization ranged only from about 40 to 60 percent of the theoretical capacity compared to greater than 70 percent with the signtered powder plagues.

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It seems that the normal nitrate impregnation procedure must require some modification for these open honeycombplaque structures. Perhaps either the time of polarization or the current or both should be decreased to reduce the amount of active material which is reduced to metallic cadmium, since it appears that the large amount of reduced metal in these ne plaques may have resulted in the lower utilization.

We stayed with this impregnation procedure though because we had decided searlier in the program that we did not want to change our impregnation procedure and thus have another variable in the process.

In summary, this work shows that plaques can be made with the uniform non-interacting pore structure and that such plaques do function similarly to normal sinter powder cadmium electrodes.

More work needs to be done to optimize the impregnation procedure and perhaps some electrochemical processes described yesterday might be tried with these.

But because we have found good initial performance and because these plaques have the structure one intuitively believes an ideal plaque should have, we believe there is justification for continuing this work and one of the next things that should be done is to build nickel-positive electrodes from these plaques also; and then test them in sealed cell operating

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Thank you.

(Applause.)

Have we some questions on this paper? BILLERBECK:

I have a couple of questions. COHN: (NASA)

One of them, you, apparently like everyone else, has striven to load as much active material into the plaques as you possibly can.

Is there reason to believe why one should try to load the plaques as hgihly as possible when we only use about 20 percent or so of the loading?

REED: Actually this wasn't the original goal. have striven to obtain a 40 percent of the pore volume filled with cadmium hydroxide based on the weight gain and we used sintered powder plaques as controls and as I said when we analyzed these we found about 90 percent of this weight gain in the sintered powder plaques was cadmium hydroxide.

Now then we were going on this assumption that it was also cadmium hydroxide in the honeycomb plaques so we wanted the weight gain to be equivalent to what would be 40 percent filling of cadmium hydroxide. So we erred and got more loading; of active material as cadmium than we originally had hoped for.

So I think you have a very good point about not overloading these. Our goal was 40 percent as cadmium hydroxide.

> The other question which is somewhat related COHN:

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and contraction that takes place when these electrodes are charged and discharged, so that you don't apply any undue stress to them as they are used?

REED: I am not sure whether the inherent structure of these would take up that motion or not. This is another reason for not loading too heavily so that they would not break.

The plaques are considerably stronger physically than a sintered powder plaque. You know if you take a sintered powder plaque and curl it around a small radius, even if it is a good sintered plaque it still cracks. There is no question about that. These can be curled around a radium as small as 1/8" making a loop out of them, either in the direction perpendicular to the bonds or parallel to the bonds without breaking.

DUNLOP: (COMSAT) I have a couple of questions, too.

What was the density of your plates? I didn't catch that.

REED: I guess I didn't mention that, but you mean the porosity?

No, the density -- well, I want to know if you had a term in terms of grams per cubic inch or something like that.

REED: I cannot give you that figure but they were

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80 percent plus or minus about 3 porous. The foils were electroformed to the thickness required to maintain this porosity.

DUNLOP: When you impregnated your plaque, what was the percent by weight of the material that you impregnated with to the plaque structure?

REED: It would have been about 50 percent of the weight.

DUNLOP: About 50 percent. Was this -- how much of the material could you utilize?

REED: It depended on the various runs. We utilized from 30 to about 60 percent of this material based on the theoretical capacity of cadmium analysis.

DUNLOP: Did you determine that the problem was one of charging? Or was it a problem of discharging?

REED: I don't know. I think it might have been both. When we started out they could be charged and discharged almost 100 percent efficiently there, so I think whether you want to say the problem was charging or discharging, I am not sure. But the amount of material that was charged before reaching the hydrogen-free capacity could be discharged.

DUNLOP: Thank you.

WILL: (G.E.) You have succeeded to provide substrate which has parallel macropores; however, let's not overlook that within this sytem of macropores you are still left

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with the micropore system which is as tortuous in its paths as in other battery plates, and I think an ideal structure would consist in one in which one would have parallel micropores.

I have a question in addition to this comment.

I would expect limitations to this kind of structure when you have considerable diameters of your macropores, like up to 10 mills; I would expect those limitations to show up in high rate charges and discharges, and I wonder to which extent you have checked this part?

REED: We have charged these as high as 4 C rate and discharged them also at this rate. Regarding your comment about the size of the pores; this is true. They are considerably larger than what you have in the microporous structure; however it also forms shall we say a cage for the active materials so that the active material which you put in one pore must remain there or move directly out into the separator rather than sintering its way down -- sintering may not be the right word shifting down and packing in more tightly into other pores, which is one hypothesis of reason for loss of cadmium capacity.

BEAUCHAMP: (BTL) I wasn't clear, what direction did your pores run in the plate?

BILLERBECK: Any other questions.

REED: The pores run perpendicular to the separator, is that what you mean?

Thank you very much.

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BILLERBECK: Oh, one more question.

WILL (G.E.) It is surprising that your plates, in fact, have such a high life capability. I would suspect that this is due to the fact that you are utilization is so small and that you have considerable excess of cadmium in there which accounts for that high rate capability and if you were to go to higher degrees of utilization that in fact you would run into a recommendation.

REED: That could be but the interesting thing about these is that the capacity at the high rate did not drop off significantly from the capacity at C and even down as far as C over 4 rate.

The coulombic capacity was not greatly influenced by the rate.

MAURER: (BTL) I was going to say something along the line of Fritz here and suggest that part of this may be that you really have is something akin to a pocket plate electrode within the pore and what you have is a conducting network of cadmium lacing the cadmium hydroxide and the low utilization is simply the active material that is within these micropores of the cadmium structure.

Ed McHenry of BTL presented some work sometime ago on an electrode that was composed simply of cadmium oxide powder and nickel flake or cadmium oxide powder and copper oxide

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cadmium or copper, depending on the materials and this gives good, high rate performance and I suspect that that may be part of what you have here.

In this case you get a micropore structure of either

One of the things that will really tell the story is when you try to do this on positive electrode where you don't get this type of action with nickel hydroxide.

If you can make a nickel hydroxide electrode with these plates that has high performance characteristics, then you are in, and if not, then this other mechanism may be the important one.

encourage you to do so, you may get poor results if this microporous argument holds because in this case in the electrochemical impregnation technique you will only coat the walls of these pores and not the center area; so you may have high utilization but low total capacity.

REED: Regarding this electrochemical utilization,

If I could ask Dr. Maurer a question; he mentioned doing his

electrochemical utilization or his colleague mentioned it,

doing it in two steps or repeating it to get more material in.

What would you think of doing this to these types of plaques to get a greater capacity? Do you see an advantage in that?

MAURER: Well, I will pass this back to Beauchamp

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but I would suspect that you would get gradually increasing amounts of material, all right. I would be suspicious that the utilization might drop in this case if the pores became very full.

FLEISCHER: What is the thickness of the pores?

REED: 30 mills.

BILLERBECK: Any other questions?

Thank you very much.

Now we will change our order of speakers here, if we can, please, and next have Dr. Mikkelson of General Dynamics. I understand he has another engagement later on this afternoon so we would like to get him up here now.

He is going to talk about silver-zinc storage cells.

MIKKELSON: (General Dynamics) I would like to thank Mr. Billerbeck for the honorary degree there. It is just Mr. Mikkelson, and I would like to thank you for revising your schedule, too. It seems that if you are near ETR and they need someone at ETR they will send for you and they will find you, so I have to make a little detour tonight.

I am a battery user rather than a battery designer or a battery tester, per se, so my remarks are user oriented and silver-zinc oriented because on the Atlas and Centaur programs which I have worked on for about the last ten years that happens to be the type of battery that we have used because

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it lends itself to our program more readily than a nickelcadmium or a silver-cadmium.

Briefly, I will describe how we use these to give you a little background into some of the problems that we do encounter from the user's side.

These silver-zinc cells or batteries -- we buy a complete battery when we procure one, we don't assemble one -- come in the dry state and we activate them, usually one to two days before a launch. Then we load test them in the laboratory

The load test is usually very short because amperehour-wise they are tailored to the missile's needs so you
cannot take too much capacity out of the battery in the labora
tory. Usually we run a load test that is comperable to what
we feel the vehicle load is or what we know the vehicle load
is and then we check at the maximum specified rate to see if
the battery is still meeting its specifications.

Recently I ran into a problem where during the running of this higher rate load test my battery voltages were lower than they should have been. In investigating, I found that these batters had all been on the shelf in the area close to two years and what was happening, apparently some loss in silver-peroxide had occurred and possibly, according to some of the battery vendors that I had talked to, some film had built up on the plates.

The loss of silver-peroxide we were able to confirm

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by recharging and discharging the batteries again. I could never confirm the other theory that was put forth.

In order to solve this sort of a problem, I thought about and have approached battery vendors with the idea of taking a battery say after it is a year old and arbitrarily activating it and discharging it and then recharging it, using it for flight.

batteries on flights for several years. They have come back and one vendor said yes, this was agreeable, that it could be discharged-recharged and be used for flight; and in fact we had discussed the extension of life to the battery as we presently use it has a 15 day life under ambient conditions and a 30 day life if you store it at a lower temperature. He is agreeable to going to 45 days.

One of the other battery vendors I contacted didn't feel that he could to along with this because he felt due to his separator design he didn't know enough about what might happen to it and as a consequence he didn't have a great deal of confidence in this type of a program, that two separators are different in design. The vendor then indicated that he could go along with it, as a U-type fold where you don't have any exposed edges, and the other vendor happened to have an S-type fold where you have exposed edges.

My purpose in recounting a little event like this is

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that if we had been real smart in the beginning, we probably would not have to be going out and making specification changes now; if we had known enough about the battery in the beginning we could have generated a specification that encompassed these types of things and here I am in full agreement with the gentleman who made the keynote address, that we should strive not only in the area of silver-zinc but also nickel-cads to come up with a standardized type of specification sheet or standard approach to batteries so that we shouldn't have to go through this sort of an exercise in the midst of a program; we should be able to know as much about the battery when we start with it, rather than having to find out by experience.

several years ago along this same line, we had designed a battery or created a specification for a 2-1/2 ampere-hour battery to be used as a power supply for rain safety and telemetry type systems. A couple of years later a requirement came along where we wanted to blow some squibs, a very high load but of very short duration. There were some people who wanted to take our main missile battery, which was about a 30 ampere-hour battery and its specification lent itself somewhat to those loads, and I wanted to take the 2-1/2 ampere-hour battery and make it a pyrotechnic battery.

Fortunately I had a lab at the time and had some test specimens around and was able to prove I could do it, but

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Otherwise I am afraid I would have lost the battle there.

It was essentially taking advantage of an inherent characteristic of the battery. And on the same battery I have come full cycle again now; I want to use it for another application where the rate is higher than what the specification says but it is an inherent characteristic of the battery.

I would like to reiterate though, again, it would be nice to have a spec sheet on batteries that looked like a transistor spec sheet. It makes it much easier for us to describe to the vendor what we need, and of course he cannot generate all of this information, some of this we have to feed back to him. So there is a need for communication back and forth.

Thank you.

(Applause.)

BILLERBECK: Do we have any questions.

Dr. Fleischer?

FLEISCHER: Did you keep track of the voltage during stand after activation?

MIKKELSON: Yes, we do.

FLEISCHER: What was the shape of that curve?

MIKKELSON: With reference to --

FLEISCHER: Did it stay at a steady value? Was it

1.8? Was it lower?

MIKKELSON: Oh, are you speaking of the storage

effect problem that I had now?

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FLEISCHER: Yes.

MIKKELSON: Okay, yes, when you initially activate

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the silver-zinc type that we have, the open circuit potential is 1.86 per cell, so you come out with an open circuit voltage of about 35 volts; so open circuit-wise when you look at the battery initially, it looked all right. It wasn't until we loaded the battery that the voltage was lower than what we had expected.

it and then discharged it and found that actually our steady state voltage was about half a volt higher than -- in, fact, it was like a new battery.

Subsequently we recharged the battery and pre-loaded

FLEISCHER: And these are primary batteries?

MIKKELSON: Yes, these are primary.

FLEISCHER: Cellulose separators?

MIKKELSON: I believe that they are cellulose viscon or visking type separators that are utilized, that is

correct.

FLEISCHER: On aging of many of these batteries, even if you have Ag,0 , the silver-oxide at the monovalent level you are liable to form silver carbonate and this is especially true of cells even in the dry state which have Ag0 and once you form silver-carbonate and you activate you have a reaction going on in which silver-carbonate on the surface

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is reacting slowly and being converted back to silver-oxide and the carbonate going into solution; so that if this happens this may explain why your voltage is not up to par during the period.

Silver-carbonate is very esily detected; if you open up the plates of cells and lookat the plates, you will see yellow crust. This is a deadsure sign that you have got silver-carbonate. It sounds from what you said that you have a silver-carbonate formation probably.

MIKKELSON: I think that is probably true because storagewise there was no attempt to control the storage temperature of the battery and it is not a sealed battery in the sense of the word, so that is probably what has occurred here.

On a recharge cycle, what happens to the silvercarbonate? Is it still present in the battery?

FLEISCHER: If it is a rechargeable battery, then the silver carbonate actually doesn't take part in recharging. It stays in solutionYou are just losing some of the hydroxide iron present as carbonate. If you get enough of it then your efficiency of charging will go down.

MIKKELSON: We noticed that our voltage was higher on the subsequent discharge. Would that be what you would expect, then? When we subsequently discharged we noticed that the voltage was higher. In fact, like a new battery.

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FLEISCHER: Well, that is because you have converted the silver to the higher oxidation state and you have more of it present in the higher oxidation state. Silver-carbonate is in the monovalent state. It only forms after you form Ag₂0.

MIKKELSON: I see, okay. Thank you.

BILLERBECK: Any other questions?

All right. Thank you very much.

Incidentally, I have heard the remark several times recently that it certainly would be nice if we had a specification for batteries that was like a transistor spec.

I certainly agree. But I think we recognize that we have a lot more parameters to deal with than one typically has in a transistor and I think their effects are much more subtle, as a number of us are aware in trying to come up with some sort of specification for the nickel-cad cell.

And I am sure some of the efforts here at Goddard in attempting to do the same thing with silver-zinc are running into some of the same problems certainly.

So, I am afraid it is not as easy as we would like it to be nor as the systems people would like it to be in the spacecraft.

Our next speaker is William Nagle from Lewis Labs, NASA-Lewis, and he is going to talk about heat sterilizable silver-zinc cells.

NAGLE: Sometime back in history we decided -- I

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ederal Reporters, Inc. 25 think Ernst decided -- we should have a fuel cell membrane that was inorganic so that we could raise the temperature on the dual membrane fuel cell. We had this program going with Astropower Laboratory. He said that the dual-membrane fuel cell wasn't going to be a success, so we should put it into silver-zinc cells.

This began to look better when we dealt with the 5 ampere-hour silver-zince cell but we were building rigid cookies as separators. If you dropped these things any higher than your chin, and Ivan Blake new exactly how to drop them from chin high and make them stay alive -- anybody else would But these hard cookies for the break them to smithereens. 5 ampere-hour inorganic separator were very hard to put into batteries, too.

During the last approximately two years we have a semi-flexible inorganic separator for silver-zince batteries. Because of a contracting officer requirement that says we will not have quarterly reports any more, none of you have heard of these silver-zinc batteries with inorganic separators. Those that get the monthly reports have heard.

All that we have been getting are monthly reports which has the very limited distribution.

The thing that I want to do today, since Astropower is going out of business as far as batteries are concerned, and I believe this to be a fairly successful development, is to

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just give you some of the data that we have assembled in the last two years on the 40 ampere-hour inorganic separator silver-zinc cell.

(Slide.)

It looks like it is a little wide. In the first line caross there is a design that we put together when the first requirement for a Viking program came out. We froze the design so far as the inorganic separator construction was concerned, and said this should be the one that we can sterilize for 200 hours at 135 degrees C. and get some reasonable stand and cycle life out of it.

As you can see, this is a small cell, three plates, only 7 ampere-hours. We let it stand charged for 8 months.

The voltage remained 1.86. Since that time we have been cycling on a 24 hour cycle, two hours' discharge to 20 percent depth, approximately, and the total wet life of the cell is 24 months so far. It is still cycling.

These cells, again, have gonethrough 135 degrees C. for 200 hours at the beginning of life.

The preliminary design that we had for the cell was 32 ampere-hour. We have two cells that we let stand seven months and the VK-1 regime relates to the Viking '73 launch which is at 20 percent depth over a 22-hour discharge, 22-hour charge. We didn't hit the day quite right but since its birthday is fairly close we used that.

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After their charged stand on this preliminary design again you see 269 cycles on the 20 percent depth in 24 hour regime, and the total wet life of these cells, again, after the sterilization period, is so far 18 months.

Cells that were float-charged seven months and then cycled on the Viking '73 regime, again there are 269 cycles.

These data are 30 days old so that is probably 299 at the present time and 19 months.

Here is our only failure so far on this cell construction. Some cells which we had run through our current density temperature cylcing regime to find out what kind of currents we could draw on this separator, we had two cells -- one cell failed at 463 cycles and one cell at 1,093 cycles.

These failures were from silver penetration through the edge of the separator where we had them glued together an envoloped. The present design, are actually what we call the 40-7, 45 ampere-hours actual, nominal 40 ampere-hour. So far these 15 cells are on 50, 75 and 90 degree wet stand and the ones at 90 degrees are just beginning to come off the peroxide level.

Several cells have dropped down to the 1.60 voltage but we think they will be all right when the end of the storage period comes -- I believe it is going to be 21 months.

Then we will start cycling on the VK-2 regime which consists of two cycles a day, one at 10 percent and one at 20

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percent and this is the one that was scheduled for the Viking 75 launch.

We see the cells on charge stand, the cells at 90 degrees have started to fall off the higher voltage level.

Of course, the ones on the float charge, 5 cells each at 50,

75 and 90 degrees are 14 months old and still alive.

Over here at this side, these are cells which have gone through, again, probably the current density temperature cycling to see what kind of currents we could stand on the cells.

We have a range on these 16 cells all grouped under one heading, 330 cycles, on, again, the 20 percent depth and an average of 13 months on those cells; and using the two cycles a day, 20 and 10 percent depth, we have eight months' life, 300 to 348 cycles. Then this VK-3, since we were calling all tests VKs of some sort, is a three cycle a day 40 percent depth.

Those are two month old with only 70 cycles on them.

Again, let me say that all of these cells have been through something that silver-zing cells cannot stand, 135 degrees for 200 hours.

This work was done at Astropower by Al Himy who, of course, -- Astropower is going out of business. We will get a report out on this and give it the widest distribution possible. If you are not on our distribution list, and would

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like a copy of the report, let me know and I will put you on the distribution list for it.

The thing that we hope to do at Lewis with this inorganic separator is to bring it in house. We believe that it will improve the life and the cycle characteristics of the silver-zinc cell and we think it will improve it much more if we don't give it that 135 degrees at 200 hours.

Are there questions?

(Applause.)

BILLERBECK: Ernst Cohn from NASA?

COHN: (NASA) I would like to make a comment on this.

I squeezed Nagle before and asked him just exactly what real

power density he is getting out of these.

He tells me at the 20 percent level it amounts to about 9 watt hours per pound. So, at the 40 percent level it would be somewhere around 18 watt hours per pound which looks like a pretty promising development if the life can stand up.

As he said, you don't necessarily have to heat it for 200 hours at 135 degrees heat.

BILLERBECK: I certainly agree, Ernst; that is a very interesting performance.

I guess the other question that comes to mind is whether there is going to be any continuation of that work in the future. Would you like to comment on that or would you prefer not to at this time?

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ral Reporters, Inc. 25 COHN: (NASA) He just said he hopes to do it in

BILLERBECK. I see.

Incidentally, we are going to have one more paper and then take a coffee break this afternoon,

The next speaker is Mr. Hennigan, and he is going to talk about automatically activated silver-zinc cells.

HENNIGAN: (NASA) This also includes some of the work that was done on the converters.

Just a block diagram of it. One of the things I think everybody would like to have -- a kind of ideal way to run a battery is to run one cell in the battery without all these series cells that we have.

A couple of years ago we had a project that we were were supposed to get at Goddard but unfortunately it went away, but to have a battery that would last from about three to five years and then the only use of it would be when we approach to plan it and orbit it for about six months.

The orbiting time would be something on the order of 12 hours to 24 hours; nobody was really sure about the orbiting time.

We had developed a converter in house here to work from about 1 volt to 2 volts, to put out at 50 to 100 watts at about 75 percent efficiency. Of course, we could use the ni-cad or silver-zinc with this. Of course, a three to five

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year life storage isn't usually attainable with silver-zinc batteries.

(Slide.)

We developed a cell, one single cell that we could fill when we needed it. It has an explosive device in it too fire at a knife and then we release a spring to push a collapsible diaphragmto put the electrolyte in the cell.

Now, as you know, when you work with silver-zinc cells this way and fill them you always get gasing. There are two approaches we use: either the cell should be drycharged or we would form it at a very low rate.

There was no requirement to fill the cell fast. didn't care if it took a matter of minutes; it was not a fast requirement. We would have plenty of time to form it if this was the way we wanted to go.

The little gadgets on the side are diffusion membranes which will diffuse the hydrogen and oxygen to a lesser degree; hydrogen is the main gas we are concerned with here. In this particular one we were going to put it back in the tank that we took the electrolyte out of.

In some cases the experimenters do not want any out-gasing or gasiaround the satellite; but it was never really decided whether we should do this but you could just let it diffuse to the vacuum in space.

(Slide.)

### STATUS OF TEST DATA OF ALL CELLS OF DESIGN TYPE 5-16 Group Creptant Charged Regime Wet Sand Followed by Cycling Group Creptant Charged Regime Wet Sand Followed by Cycling Colls Group Creptant Charged Regime Wet Cycles Life Colls Regime Cycles Life Colls Group Creptant As An a mo. (VK.1) 18 mo. 2 7 mo. (VK.1) 18 mo. 2 695 Present 45 Ah 15 14 mo 15 mo. 15 14 mo 15 mo. 16 (VK.1) 13 mo. 16 10 mo. 16 14 (VK.2) 1023-144 Wet Sand Cycles Life Colls Regime Cycles Life Colls Group Creptant As Ah 2 7 mo. (VK.1) 18 mo. 2 7 mo. (VK.1) 18 mo. 2 695 Freshent As Ah 15 14 mo 15 mo. 15 14 mo 15 mo. 16 (VK.1) 170-31-348 Wet Sand Followed by Cycles Life Colls Colls Wet Sand Followed by Cycling Cycling Wet Sand Followed by Cycling We	THE TON
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This is what they had in mind at the time. course, we have a main power source, RTG or solar array with the conventional converter regulator and we would be supplying some load during the flight.

As we approach the planet or orbit the planet they want the additional loads so this is when the cell will be turned on as a primary or a secondary; of course, we are going to shoot for the secondary. The voltage can actually go as low as 1 volt but the efficiency will go down to about 70 percent 10 if we go that way. And the regulation on the outputter converter is 28 volts plus or minus 1 percent.

The tank plus the 300 ampere-hour cell gave us about 30 watt hours per pound if it was all foamed in together but we could do about 35 watt hours per pound if we just packaged the tank and the cell separately in here.

We really didn't think we had to foam this whole thing in together.

One of the things is, I am a little bit concerned about vibrating a cell of this type when it is dry. About a year ago I had a cell vibrating with test electrodes. According to the delta launch vibration schedule, which isn't too bad a vibration, to tell you the truth -- nothing like the military does -- and surprisingly enough, the Teflonated electrodes held up fairly well. If we do any more development on this we would have to have some way of holding that stack, I

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ters, ir c. ウェ We just built a couple of prototypes and since the project is kind of -- we can't find it or it has gone away some place -- we don't intend to do anymore development of this thing but I think the main thing is I would want to let you people know there is such a converter-regulator available for single cell operation at fairly good efficiencies.

Thank you.

(Applause.)

BILLERBECK: Do we have some question now on Tom's paper?

SULKES: (U.S. Army Electronics Command) Do you have any idea of the cost of that regulator or what it could be made for?

HENNIGAN: These have been built in house and it is kind of hard to get your cost. They did fly one on Nimbus.

That one was working at 3 volts. I will make a quick guess.

I would say something like \$10,000 to make one or two.

BILLERBECK: Other questions?

about this concept of separating hydrogen by diffusion and I calculated it one time and I doubt now whether it operates according to the square root of the electrode weight or the electrode itself, but in either case it turns out that you still diffuse out too much oxygen. You have to worry about oxygen

diffusion also as well as hydrogen.

HENNIGAN: Well, we have done silver-zinc cells without overcharging at all and involved no oxygen during the charge cycle.

GROSS: Okay, you had low enough oxygen; you didn't have to worry about it.

HENNIGAN: What we would use is this technique where we sense the current and when it tapers down we drop the charge to just above the open circuit, about 187; and we have run cells oh for at least a year with very little pressure buildup; maybe 2 atmospheres at the most over the whole time. And most of that is hydrogen, so we would lose a little bit of oxygen but I don't think that would bother us over say six months! time.

Now, we have used this diffusion method in a sealed satellite where we had -- silver zinc cells, fairly large size up to 200 ampere-hours size, and we had to be carefulthat we didn't get water vapor into the satellite that would affect the electronic instruments. So over each one we had a little diffusion membrane and did diffuse out oxygen. There was another time that we did use charging these cells again at very low rate.

I think over six months we might have cycled -- what was it Charlie, about ten times? About ten times or so.

BILLERBECK: Other questions on this paper?

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All right, I think now Ernst Cohn would like to make a comment here at this point on another matter.

COHN: NASA) This is a bit on the impromptu side, but since it said new developments for this afternoon I thought I would mention it to you quickly that we are trying to develop something newly that was started about #-dladon!toknow whether it was 15 or 25 years ago by Dr. White and his crew at NRL -- that is a non-gasing ni-cad cell. It should be possible, according to him, to build non-gasing ni=cads in which you are negative limited, where you replace the nickel screen with something that gives you a higher hydrogen overvoltage so that you can then use a voltage setting if you have a proper type of material, use a voltage control to cut off the charge when the negative is fully charged, have enough excess positive so that you don't develop any oxygen and thereby in principle you should be able to build a non-gasing ni-cad.

The advantages would be manifold that I can see. I haven't heard of any great disadvantage yet. I don't know why nobody has really pursued the matter, but we are now going to try in a very modest way to go about this.

I talked to a number of people, including some of the people here, about it, but I thought I would use the forum to mention it again and to mention also that Mr. Uchiyama of JPL, who is sitting back there, is going to handle the program

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ederal Reporters, Inc. 25 on very modest means.

Thank you.

BILLERBECK: Thank you,

Now, Gerry, did you have any comments before we take our coffee break here?

(NASA) Yes, I would like to have slides HALPERT: or Viewgraphs from people who have not turned them in to me so we can have them photographed for the proceedings.

I think that is very important BILLERBECK: Fine. and it certainly will contribute to the quality of the papers from this meeting if we can get all those slides. I think there were some very good ones.

Thank you.

(Recess.)

HALPERT: . To conclude the sessions for today, this last portion will be an open discussion.

I would like to ask if there are any subjects or questions that people have that they would like to ask the group as a whole and have people respond to.

Are there any areas you feel should be covered additionally or that have not been covered that they would like to mention and get some response to?

Bill Nagle?

NAGLE: (NASA) I would like a discussion on the causes of fading in the cadmium electrode. I have heard some

at Reporters, Inc. some discussion of things that don't fade, but I still don't know why we are getting it.

HALPERT: Is there anybody who would like to open the discussion on fading? Dr. Fleischer?

FLEISCHER: I think as a starter Bill Nagle ought to get up and give us a talk and show the cases where this fading has been authenticated and the conditions under which the cells have operated, charge conditions, discharge conditions, open circuit times, and then we will have a point at which we could start talking about what is is we want to know about fading.

NAGLE: (NASA, Lewis Research Center) As far as I am concerned, it is still just a rumor that happened recently.

I haven't seen any examples of fading. I want to know where to hit the problem if there is a problem.

HALPERT: We have experienced some, to my knowledge;

I am not in on any of the satellite projects but I am sure some

of our project people here have seen it.

I wonder whether we could get a comment from -- Steve, would you like to say something?

GASTON: (Grumman) I don't have the data with me showing the fading and I wasn't prepared for that, but I am quite sure we can get the information. It is available.

I don't think it is a rumor; it is a reality and it does exist. The negative electrode does change in its

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characteristics either as a function of age or a function of cycling and doesn't accept the charge anymore as it did before.

I think a study was made under Goddard's sponsorship looking at the crystalline structure of the cadmium-hydroxide crystalline, that crystals certainly did change from a very regular crystal to a very irregular, very thin crystal. I am quite convinced the negative electrode does change its crystalline structure and I am also convinced that because of this change the capacity of the negative electrode does change.

HALPERT: Steve, do you care to say what the characteristics are, what do you see that indicates that the negative is fading? What are the particular electrical characteristics you see?

do charge the cell under an orbital regime, you will note that the charge acceptance to a specific voltage you potentially charge -- acceptance is going to be lower, but if you charge to a fixed input that you will see a higher voltage. We have seen instances where, based on the auxiliary electrode signal, that we do have a voltage rise but no corresponding rise in the auxiliary electrode signal, showing that the cell is negative limiting. I should say indicating that the cell is negative limiting.

And, of course, the second item on the low

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temperature overcharge which I showed yesterday, I see an indication of change in the charge characteristic -- the overcharge characteristics.

HALPERT: Just to clarify this, you say you see a higher voltage at the end of charge, is that what you are saying?

GASTON: On the overcharge characteristics, yes.

HALPERT: This is a separate test, overcharge

characteristic?

GASTON: Separate from the normal characteristic; in the normal charge characteristics you will see a rise in cell voltage with no corresponding rise in the -- signal voltage, and that is pretty much indicative or apparent that it is negative limiting.

WILL: (G.E.) I would like to continue my pitch of yesterday. Apparently Dr. Nagle might not have been here yesterday.

There was also, of course, one of the leading talks yesterday by Dr. Beauchamp from Bell Telephone that showed very nicely the performance which he called of a commercial plate that undoubtedly showed the effects of loss of capacity on cycling and he compared that very nicely with the plates which they have produced recently using the electrochemical impregnation process.

So I think we are, number one, dealing with a true

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effect and, number two, I would like to discuss maybe some of the aspects of fading.

We have recently, under NASA contract sponsorship from NASA Research Center in Cleveland, performed a study which I mentioned yesterday very briefly in which we have identified two major reasons for the loss of capacity on continuous cycling.

Number one, there is undoubtedly a very large increase of particle size which we find to exist especially at the larger temperatures. In fact, under the microscope we observe the first particle growth to occur in the very first discharge.

At room temperature, in the microscope, under magnification of 500X, we did not observe such particle growth in the first roughly ten to 20 cycles. However, if one increases the resolution of this study by taking the plates to the scanning electron microscope, one does observe particle growth which also starts as early as in the very first discharge.

Now once these big particles have been formed, they are very difficult to cycle; they are just too large. are cadmium-hydroxide crystals. We have identified them as such; they are very large in size. And it is sort of obvious that with the slow ionic processes taking place in these large crystals of cadmium-hydroxide, that it is very difficult to

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reduce them all the way through to cadmium.

We have observed these big particles to just sit there in the electrode, maintain their size; if anything, they grow on cycling more and more; they don't participate in the cycling; they don't, therefore, contribute to the capacity.

We have also identified a second reason for the fading and what I am hinting, therefore, is that there is no simple answer to this complex question.

We are not dealing with one simple phenomenon; we are rather dealing with many different phenomena superimposed. It will depend on the particular cycling regime one uses, things very pertinent which Dr. Fleischer brought up a moment ago. It depends on how long one keeps the electrode on open circuit, what the cycling regime is, whether one overcharges or overdischarges. All of these factors play a significant role as: to what fading mechansim might exist.

Now to the second point I wanted to make. The second reason for the failure we identified is the formation of passive films. These films show a brown color. One should not confuse that with cadmium-oxide, however, because we have found these brown films to resist reduction. While, on the other hand it is very well known that cadmium-oxide, the brown cadmium-oxide, can readily be reduced to cadmium.

It is most likely that these brown films consist of Inc.
25 cadmium-hydroxide which contains a high concentration of defects

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which act as color centers and produce the brown color. It is these defect-rich hydroxides which are passive, because most likely their ionic conductivity is low.

As I also said in my pitch yesterday, some of these things I have said now will be published in a NASA report forthcoming in the next few months.

HALPERT: Jim Dunlop, COMSAT.

DUNLOP: (COMSAT) I also think we are covering this subject pretty thoroughly but I would like to add that yesterday morning I presented a paper describing results on the IntelSat-4 Program where we made an attempt to analyze cells at different stages in a test program, from the time that we received the cell from the cell manufacturer up to one year later in the test program.

Let me give you the results that we have, briefly, and then I want to make some comments with respect to what was just said.

Before, as we received the tests, that is before we did any cycling, we were able to obtain about 80 percent utilization of the cadmium electrode. After we ran 30 cycles of burn in, we took three cells, we got 72 percent utilization on one and 73.5 on another and 74 percent on the third one.

That was the utilization after 30 cycles with an 80 percent depth of discharge, charging back at a C over 10 rate, discharging at a C over 2 rate, charging it for 16 hours,

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discharging it for 1.2 hours.

We then put this cell into a real fine test program where we ran it through an eclipse operation with a varied depth of discharge each day, a varied profile each day, and then went into a storage mode. After one year of testing, we took two cells out and one cell had 70 percent utilization, the other had 70.5.

So there was a gradual decrease in the utilization of the negative electrode as a function of time.

The second point here is, the utilization of this material was interesting in what part of it we were utilizing, where we limited it on charge or where we limited it on Initially, when we first received these cells, discharge. when we completely discharged the cell electrically, electrochemically, we completely discharged it at a useful rate and then go through a chemical analysis because we find there is still metallic cadmium remaining in that plate which cannot be discharged.

We also find that whenewestry and charge this same plate in a flooded condition and then go back and compare it to the chemical theoretical capacity, that we cannot fully charge this cell; this is somewhat in agreement with what was just said, that there is some cadmium hydroxide here which cannot be charged. And it turns out that with cycling it seems that the amount of cadmium hydroxide that cannot be charged is what

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is increasing or causing the loss in utilization, that the amount of metallic cadmium remaining in the plate is actually diminishing with time.

HALPERT: Dr. Weininger?

WEININGER: (G.E.) I don't think anybody defined fading with a simple sentence. I want to ask whether I am right in saying that fading is the irreversible loss of negative capacity. Am I right or am I wrong?

If I assume to be right, then I will continue because if you --

VOICE: Not really.

weininger: Okay. If I am wrong I want you to tell me, please.

HALPERT: Does anyone want to answer that?

DUNLOP: (COMSAT) The point I just made is that at the beginning of the cycling there was metallic cadmium in that plate that we could not discharge initially that with cycling we were able to discharge.

HALPERT: Dr. Fleischer.

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orters, Inc. in a fully flooded condition under many conditions of charge and discharge. For example, on the regime of low rate charging, say 20 hour charging, with 100 percent overcharge, and the rate at which you lose capacity is a function of discharge rate and usually on sintered plates there was an intermediate rate at which it was the maximum.

And this depends on the thickness of the plate. On 80 mill plates it happened at the maximum loss of capacity was at the one-hour rate which was higher than at a 5-hour rate or at a 10-minute rate.

only have 20 percent of their original capacity, you could bring the capacity back by giving them a higher rate charge, instead of charging them at overnight, say 15 hours, with 100 or 200 percent excess over capacity, you charge them in three hours at the same input, now you would find that the capacity started to come back up. So I cannot agree that it is irreversible in the sense that you cannot get it back somehow; but in a battery you would have great difficulty in carrying out this reconditioning to get to the same condition.

WEININGER: That really answers most of my point,

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namely, that I was particularly interested in the irreversible aspect. It it is reversible or if it changes as Fritz said by a change in crystal size or as Dick Beauchamp yesterday discussed as a possible mechanism of closing pore size. This is just a redistribution of cadmium.

What I was really trying to allude to was that we have in the literature back five or ten years lots of examples where people have found just exactly that redistribution and if you have any particular changes due to C rate, well, that is a different story and I will agree that the mechanism of that hasn't been fully explored.

But just the decay of capacity, that can very simply be explained by the redistribution of the the material.

Thank you.

WILL: (G.E.) Since I have this in my hand anyway - (Laughter.)

will: -- I completely agree with Dr. Fleischer that one ought to distinguish between irreversible and reversible loss in capacity. In fact, it appears that most of the capacity under proper conditions can be put back into the plate.

Now, the redistribution that Dr. Weininger mentioned has been observed quite early. This is quite true. However, the mechanisms leading to these changes have until recently been completely unknown.

We all know that cadmium is soluble; we know that

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solubility increases sharply, with increasing KOH concentration and with increasing temperature, and we have recently in this NASA study shown beyond any doubt that cadmium does grow into solution, then can obviously leave the plate and it has been known, of course, that — it then becomes deposited into the separator and can give a lot of trouble.

With regard to the mechanism, the only thing I wanted to add on now is the significance of changes of pH in the battery plate itself; and it is those particular pH gradients with which we have dealt a lot at G.E. in the past few years.

There is something very peculiar about it in that on discharge, of course, we are consuming hydroxyl; ions in the plate and we also know that at lower pH cadmiate is less soluble, so we are bound to precipitate, we are bound to oversaturate and precipitate; and the large crystals which I mentioned to be formed in the very first discharge are in fact formed as a consequence of the formation of low pH in the plate and consequent precipitation due to supersaturation, and precipitation of cadmium-hydroxide crystals.

On prolonged charging one does just the opposite; one raises the pH, the Cd (OH) crystals can redissolve as cadmiate ions and we have shown in several experiments that we are then dealing with an electrodeposition, simply Cd (OH) 3-

is being discharged to get metallic cadmium and that is

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the mechanism which makes additional capacity on prolonged charging available again.

Summing it up, this last point, on prolonged charging one is producing higher pH, that favors the dissolution of cadmium hydroxide crystals -- that is a slow process -- and if one does it long enough then one can electrodeposit cathodically the cadmium ions back to cadmium.

HALPERT: Dr. Fleischer?

FLEISCHER: (Consultant) I would like to add some more points to our discussion about this subject.

We will go over to pocket-type plates for a minute, and here the active material is a mixture of cadmium-oxide and iron-oxide, iron-oxides in various forms. One of the favorite ones to use is a composition of magnetite having some water crystallization.

If you look at the pocket-type plate without any iron-oxide addition you will find within one or two cycles of forming the material the cadmium has agglomerated into a kind of sponge which has practically no discharge capacity -- you just don't seem to have a way of getting a discharge going out of it -- but the minute you add iron-oxide you have changed the whole mechanism of whatever is going on. No one has really explained what happens by adding iron-oxide to cadmium.

It is also true that no matter what battery system You look at, you have to have what we call an exapider.

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probably half of the problems with lead acid batteries are due to the fact that your expander has lost its initial stage of distribution or you have used the wrong one or you have done something with the expander that isn't right. But you use it in practically every case. The only one I don't know of -- well, Dr. Lander at Wright-Patterson has introduced Emulphonical gene as an expander for the zinc electrode but their problems have to do with the soluble nature of the zinc.

But here everybody is building, as far as I know, cadmium electrodes without expanders and we have this whole background of experience saying, well, you had better get an expander of some kind in here or the cadmium will agglomerate.

In this particular case I wanted to bring out that the problem is not in the cadmium-hydroxide but actually in the state of agglomeration of the metallic cadmium.

So I will just add that the expanders that work exceedingly well for cadmium are cellulose derivitives which are most unlikely candidates in most cases because eventually they are oxidized to carbonate.

I might also say that oxidized cellulose is manufactured by Tennessee Eastman Kodak by oxidizing cellulose with N_20_4 produces a compound which will bring back almost any cadmium plate. If you add it to the electrolyte and cycle it you will bring back the capacity in a very few cycles.

The other expander is indium, the addition of a

mail amount of indium to cadmium, indium being only slightly soluble in cadmium metal, will act as an expander and probably a very practical one because it increases the low temperature pefformance of the cadmium electrode. However, the amount of work that has been done on indium addition to cadmium electrodes is very small.

We don't know what it will do in a restricted electrolyte cell; we don't know what it will do in various temperatures; we actually know very little of the mechansim of its behavior.

CARR: (Eagle Picher) Not everybody doesn't use expanders in the negative, Dr. Fleischer. In nickel cadmium.

I would like to go back to some of the discussion, or to go on with a little bit of the discussion. As I understood what was said, we can form large inactive crystals of cadmium-hydroxide and we at Eagle-Picher found this also in the work on the failed cells that had been subjected to many, many cycles.

The cycle data which I presented those cells had large inactive crystals which we identified as cadmium-hydroxide with a trace of cadmium-carbonate.

I cannot quite understand, since there are substantial quantities of carbonate present in the electrolyte in these cells, or there was, that there was not more cadmium carbonate. I don't know if that comes into play with the brown layer that

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you were talking about or not.

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I would like to ask a couple of questions. First of all, can you detect any redistribution of negative material; can you tell if it is moving from the inside of the plate to the outside areas, which is what we would suspect. And then further on this, I infer that if you have this and we go to a long-term low-rate charge, we can get it back. I would like to know if anyone has done any failure work on the phenomena which we have discussed yesterday modly on long-term trickle charging makes capacity less available and seems to be irreversible.

(G.E.) WEININGER: I can answer only a very small part of your question but I am awfully happy you asked that one

I will try to be very modest about this thing but these pink booklets there that Gerry Halpert has assembled shows one particular reference about five or six years ago when Eric Lifshin and I took one of the very first Crane series of tests, in Dayton, and have taken these plates, the same material, and done electron scanning, X-ray scanning, of the plates and showed how through a number of cycles, the temperature and depth of discharge the cadmium was moving from the inside to the outside.

There were also other methods involved, X-ray transmission and the metallographic as well, so as far as the cadmium is concerned, it moves from inside to outside.

Thank you.

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GROSS: (Boeing) I wanted to ask Fritz Will a question about the effects of pH changes on the movement, migration of cadmium due to solubility. First, I wanted to point out what is already well known, that the solubility of the cadmium species in addition to being dependent upon pH and temperature is also very highly dependent on concentration of carbonates; so it is quite obvious when you look at the solubility chart of this that you want to minimize carbonate in order to minimize solubility.

One question that comes to my mind is the effects of temperature cycling on the dissolution-precipitation sequence. You would expect a larger temperatures on discharge than on charge, and I am curious what he has found that this might do to the precipitation mechanism.

The other question I wanted to ask was on the use of cellulose. I understand that most manufacturers do use cellulose in their negatives. I don't know if it is justified or not but my question is to the manufacturers: Do they use cellulose in their products? I would like to hear from them.

CARR: (Eagle Picher) No.

HALPERT: Any comments.

RAMPELL: (G.E.) No.

VOICE: Gulton Industries, No.

HALPERT: Gulton Industries says no.

I might make the comment here that that one point

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that Dr. Fleischer mentioned ironoxide and of the cells that
we have seen some of this fading in, I mentioned specifically
I am more familiar with the OAO cells which are made with plates
that have a nickel-plated steel grid in the center and that
nickel-plate not always protects the steel as well as one might
expect and there is iron-oxide available and I wonder if that
would be the type of iron-oxide that we are talking about,
this is my question?

WILL: (G.E.) This is in answer to the first question from the gentleman back there -- the brown color in our experiments cannot be associated with the formation of carbonate. We carefully excluded carbonate by suing nitrogen flushing through a polyethylene bag surrounding our microscope stage; furthermore, we are dealing with single crystals of cadmium-hydroxide and I don't quite see how carbonate would fit into those single crystals.

The brown color was not associated certainly with these big crystals.

Temperature cycling on charge and discharge, as far as I understood your question, you are not proposing to control the temperature from the outside but rather you are talking about a temperature change which comes about through the process of charge and discharge.

Well, we have not looked into that effect. I would suspect those temperature changes, under the small-current

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conditions that we are using in our experiments, that these temperature changes would be very small and I would not think that we are dealing with effects due to these small temperature changes.

GROSS: (Boeing) Not in your experiment but what we might expect in experiments with real cells which do show the large temperature variations.

WILL: (G.E.) One word on the expanders. As early as 1910, Grube has done a careful study of the effect of Fe_2o_3 as well as Fe_3o_4 on the capacity and cycling of cadmium plates and found both of them to be beneficial in preventing the loss of capacity on cycling. He found that the Fe_2o_3 participates in the cycling while the Fe_3o_4 is inert as far as the cycling is concerned and sits there and prevents the fading, probably by acting as nuclei for the soluble cadmiate species.

So far for the speculation of Grube on the mechanism involved in the facts he found.

Later on Otto Wagner, of course, at Fort Monmouth only a few years ago, did a very careful study of the effects of Fe_2O_3 on the fading of cadmium plates.

SULKES: (Army Electronics Command) With regard to the study of the iron-oxide, it certainly was very beneficial to the cadmium plate; however, the nickel-cadmium cells lowered the oxygen voltage on the nickel and, in effect, in that type of cell it was not beneficial, whereas it was in a cadmium

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air type, so that material alone is not good. There are other materials which may not have that effect and will have the expander properties.

I would like to make one comment to Dr. Will. In your studies, this was probably very what we call clean conditions on your cadmium whereas in your normal cell we do have let's call it gunk coming off the separator which does have an expander property and in your pasted cadmium plates and sil-cad, let's call it the gunk that comes from the cellophane does have expanded properties and your fading is not as rapid.

HALPERT: Maurer, Bell Labs.

effect. Utaka Okinaka presented a paper a few years ago on cadmium electrodes; these were battery electrodes now in which he discharged and charged the electrodes at different temperatures and at different rates and looked at them with the optical microscope. And he showed pictures of the cadmium-hydroxide crystals and effects are what one might predict if one would try to grow crystals; in low rates and high temperatures on discharge, tend to form large cadmium-hydroxide crystals and high rates and low temperatures tend to form small ones. So any type of temperature cycling and rates in this line would tend to form small crystals would be beneficial. In satellite work where you are talking about temperatures of 32 degrees F. and

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fairly high rate discharges, the tendency would be to form small crystals. This is only part of the picture, however. You still have the long-term trickle charge, for example, where you are talking about charging up some of these crystals and getting the dissolution mechanism to move material about, you still have to provide the other half of the electrochemical reaction because in that state of charge the electrode cannot change while you are on overcharge and that other half turns out to be the oxygen attack on the metallic cadmium that I spoke about yesterday.

GROSS: (Boeing) I would like to repeat again, however, that since in real cells the solubility is so temper: ture dependent and since the temperature does cycle in real cells, that this does still remain an open, unanswered question, in my mind at least.

STEINHAUER: (Hughes) We talk about expanders and we talk about this fading problem, but what happens when we do everything we can and we still get it?

(Laughter.)

STEINHAUER: Is the only mechanism getting the higher hydrades of the cadmium back into solution? Second, in commenting on Cohn's paper earlier of the negative limited cell, we may want it to fade, it may become negative limited, but there must be a limit. What about a cell that is positive limited on charge and negative limited on discharge? We would

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be interested.

HALPERT: Any comment there?

MAURER: I had a comment on Cohn's comment initially.

(A), you can make the hydrogen overvoltage in the cadmium electrade higher by treating it with mercury. This was reported on by Gottlieb a few years ago. That raises the hydrogen overvoltage and give you the effect that you are interested in.

We have thought about this type of approach for the Bell System applications; however, in the Bell System we have to be money conscious to provide this type of operation without raising your telephone bill.

The problem is in charging a cell of this type in a battery, it is very easy to charge it singly, limit the voltage to 1.6 or 1.5 or wherever you happen to want it. When you put this same thing in the battery, when you put a constant voltage limit on it, there is bound to be a cell with lower capacity that gets charged up first and when it reaches full charge the voltage goes up and if it is a battery with a lot of cells in it, its reaching full charge is not detected in the charging circuit, it voltage will go right on up to the hydrogen evolution potential, whatever that happens to be, so you will get gasing in one cell's battery on charge unless the cells are perfectly matched.

The way around this problem is to simply charge the cells in parallel and provide an electronic switching

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circuitry suitable for changing them from charge mode to discharge mode in series. And for aerospace applications I would think this would be practical, especially with integrated circuits.

In Bell System service it is rather impractical, I think.

DUNLOP: (COMSAT) Was the question answered on what the effect of carbon, the buildup of carbonate is on the positive plate for in general what it is in the cell?

I didn't really understand the answer if it was given. If somebody speculated on that. What happens in the buildup of carbonate? What does it do to cell performance?

WILL: (G.E.) I would only like to comment on the effects of carbonates on the cadmium plate which has been well documented. The carbonate additions to the COH grossly increase the solubility of cadmiate ions in solution and thereby grossly exaggerate the phenomenon of fading as demonstrated by Wagner at Fort Monmouth.

DUNLOP: I guess my question really was, with respect to the comment that carbonate, where he said that he would have expected with the amount of carbonate buildup that he had in the electrolyte, that he would have expected to see a larger amount of cardmium carbonate in the cardmium electrode.

I think the other question I really would ask would be directed to Dr. Reed, and that is, what was the effect in

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his test program?

GROSS: I would mention that Kroger has recently published a paper indicating some effects of carbonate on the positive; however, it was somewhat qualitative and the conclusions were not quite clear to me, complicated by the fact that they weren't clear enough for me to remember them.

I will turn it over to Reed.

REED: (Battelle) To answer Dunlop's question about the effects of carbonate on the positive, we have done some short number of experiments in which we cycled some small positive electrodes in KOH in which various amounts of carbonate were added, keeping the potassium ion concentration constant so as to simulate the increase in carbonate formation in sealed cell electrolyte.

We found that the charge potential of the positive increases, goes up toward the potentials at which you would expect oxygen to be involved much more rapidly in electrolytes in which there is a high degree of carbonation, say several hundred grams per liter; and when you have pure 30 percent KOH. And likewise the discharge voltage is lower.

I say we did just a small amount of work on this.

More recently there has been a paper published by General

Electric personnel -- I do not recall all of the authors; one
of them was Cattoti from Gainesville. This was presented at
the Brighton Conference several months ago and there are pre-

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prints of it available; some people here, I believe, have them. I have seen this paper and they did a similar experiment except they used sealed cells with reference electrodes in them. They found that when the electrolyte had a large degree of carbonate the cell voltage on charge did increase rapidly similar to what we found; in following the electrode, single electrode potential versus the reference electrode in their cells, they found that most of this increase in cell potential was at the positive electrode and likewise the decrease in cell potential on discharge also occurred at the positive electrode.

He pointed out, however, that since their cells had a large excess of negative capacity, they could not make any definitive statements about the effect of carbonate at the negative in the short-term cycling that they did.

GROSS: (Boeing) That was the paper I was referring to. The specific point that was ambiguous was the fact that carbonate levels investigated in which these conclusions were drawn were extremely high, and would not necessarily be valid in the lower carbonate concentrations we might expect in well made cells.

REED: (Battelle) I am not so sure that in the past at least we have not fund these high carbonate concentrations in cells. A number of cells that we have had on test at Wright-Patterson when analyzed we found that as much as 50 equivalent

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percent of the KOH had been converted to carbonate.

MAURER: (Bell) I agree with Reed, since in the sealed cell there is very limited quantity of electrolyte; you don't need very much carbonate to achieve a very high percentage in the electrolyte.

Physically, in the characteristics of the cell, if you just look at a cell, no reference electrodes or anything, the first evidence of carbonate many times shows up as socalled carbonate step in the discharge plateau. The discharge proceeds in a normal fashion, you get a semi-need and then another lower voltage plateau. Many times this is as low as 8/10ths of a volt.

There is some question in my mind that carbonate itself causes the higher charge voltage and lower discharge voltage that is observed. Part of this at least can be explained by the lower pH of the electrolyte. You have converted a substantial fraction of the OH ions effectively into CO3 ions so the pH drops and you get in effect a cell with one normal KOH instead of 7 normal KOH.

Another effect was described by, I believe, Turner and Okinaka a while back, a few years back. Carbonate in the electrolyte tends to cause corrosion of the nickel substrate of the positive electrode and so operation with large amounts of overcharge would tend to corrode the positive electrode.

The first effect you see is an increasing capacity

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and eventual drop in capacity because the plate falls apart.

HALPERT: You are talking about the carbonate coming in with the electrolyte, not as part of a separate degradation.

MAURER: In Turner's work he deliberately added carbonate, but the same thing can happen in a sealed cell where the carbonate comes from the separator degradation.

Another effect is the freezing point of carbonate-KOH mixtures is, of course, higher, and so for low temperature performance presence of carbonate causes problems.

FLOYD: A point to be clarified. I think maybe Dr. Reed can clarify this.

When you say that the charge voltage as it increases, it has been my experience that when you talk about charge voltage you have two very distinctive regions to be concerned with. One is the charge voltage prior to going into overcharge. The other is the overcharge voltage itself at whatever constant current you may be charging which is usually at a fairly low rate.

Which one or are you talking about both of these voltages increasing?

The second point, addressed to Dr. Maurer, did I understand you to say that the double plateau effect that we see on cells, practically all aerospace cells with extended cycling, is due to carbonate?

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REED: (Battelle) The portion of the charge voltage curve which I am referring to starts out immediately and rises rather than remaining fairly flat with a slow increase in potential until most of the postive is charged and, likewise, the curves at General Electric show almost an immediate increse in charge potential.

(Bell Labs) Part of this effect is due, MAURER: also, I forgot to mention, to the fact that carbonate and KOH mixtures have a higher impedence than a set of normal KOH, so you see a higher charge voltage simply because the IR drop in the cells is higher and consequently on discharge a suppression.

Whether all of the second plateaus on aerospace cells are a carbonate efffect or not, I wouldn't care to mention since I haven't looked at them personally. It is very likely that that could be part of the problem.

There are other effects that can cause voltage (changes).

REED: (Battelle) Regarding the increase electrolyte resistance in KOH-carbonate mixtures, the increase in cell and single electrode potential is much greater than one could account for simply on the basis of IR loss; furthermore, if it were simply that it should not show up when you do measure it against the reference electrode and the increase in single electrode potential versus the reference electrode is almost identical to

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that of the increase of cell voltage when the electrolyte has a high carbonate concentration.

HALPERT: It has been idecided a long time ago that carbonate is not very good for the cell, at least it causes problems and depending upon how much carbonate in there you want to increase your pre-charge, if I may say that word at this time, to that much greater extent.

DUNLOP: (COMSAT) Why do you say that? Pre-charge? HALPERT: Yes.

DUNLOP: Pre-charge will increase?

HALPERT: Yes, I said pre-charge.

DUNLOP: I don't think you mean that. I haven't heard anything yet so far that indicated that the problem would be solved by increasing the pre-charge.

HALPERT: I was referring to not only the loss of capacity on either electrode, particularly the negative, but also I didn't get a chance to continue saying that we had had a fading of the negative also in which we would have to increase our pre-charge.

DUNLOP: The only reason I jump on that is that the comment "pre-charge" has been used a number of times through this discussion and why do you pre-charge? It seems to me that almost all the comments that have been made about fading have dealt with some form of either large cadmium-hydroxide crystals being formed which could not be charged or

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some some problem with carbonate causing a loss of the use of the material.

Our experience has been that if anything, we are able to utilize more of the pre-charge with time. The part that we are losing on our cells with time is not pre-charge. We are actually able to discharge more of that pre-charge at useful rate after one and a half or two years than we were after the first 30 cycles, where we were not able to utilize the material is in the discharge state; we are not able to charge it.

I think this is a rather interesting point, although
I haven't really said very much about it, and I think I am a
little bit confused here as to why. My only understanding now
as to why we use a large amount of pre-charge is either to
reduce the pressure of the gas we build up or else to allow us
to discharge at high rate or at low temperature but it doesn't
seem to help our cells very much in terms of either carbonate
buildup or in terms of the fading effect.

GASTON: (Grumman) I agree with Jim Dunlop, it is our feeling too that the pre-charge should be kept low rather than high.

HALPERT: I guess I should not have brought the pre-charge in at this particular time. I was really trying to get back to the negative fading, and what I really wanted to determine at this particular point was what we can do about the

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negative fading.

We have heard some talk about expanders. Have expanders been used on the type of cells that are used in the semi-dry or semi-wet type of cells; and has it helped?

Secondly, we know that continuous cycling has caused us to see a loss of capacity on the negative, it seems to me, only when we are continuously cycling.

What happens if we do rest? Is there a loss of this or is there a fading of the negative when we do have rest between cycles? Is it something we are always going to be stuck with or can we do something about it?

May I have some comments with regard to that?

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MAURER: (Bell Labs) I have several comments, that have been piling up here.

One, I agree with Reed that the resistance to the electrolyte will not account for all of the voltage increase on charge but the voltage increase in charge consists of several parts, one of which is resistance to the electrolyte, one of which is an increase in voltage of the positive electrode itself. Another part is the simple effect of the lower pH of the electrolyte caused by the carbonation. These three go together to give you this peculiar effect.

On Dunlop's comment, what I tried to show yesterday was that the process of overcharging tends to oxidize any cadmium metals present, whether it be the inactive, electrochemically inactive material or the pre-charge, or, of course, the working cadmium and produce cadmium-hydroxide part of which may be active and part of which may be inactive for various reasons that we have discussed here.

Fritz tends to favor large crystals. I agree that that is one process. The other process is simple isolation of the material from any conductor. that is effectively close enough. If you charged at perhaps extremely low rates for extremely long times, you may be able to reach some of this material.

So I think that pre-charge is still necessary in

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electrodes of this design to keep the balance of the working electrode in the useful range and that it need be present for that reason only.

Oxygen recombination is improved with pre-charge but you can improve it by other techniques as well which we hope to have the paper from the labs describing in the not too distant future.

The carbonate effect itself comes in in a number of ways. One are these voltage effects we have been talking about in the plateau. I don't think the carbonate per se is responsible for the fading. It is the catalyst that increases the rate of fading; it provides a mechanism for dissolution and reprecipitation of the active material, so that with carbonate the cadmium-hydroxide is more soluble than let's say the cadmium specie is more soluble and hence can move around faster

It itself is not responsble for the fading.

CARR: (Eagle Picher) I would like to ask a question again. That is, in the discussions regarding long-term like six months trickle charging even at low rates we have heard that this permanently reduces capacity. Has this been attributed to positive or negative?

HALPERT: Does anybody want to answer that?

DUNLOP: (COMSAT) I might make one comment. Our

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results show that you can recover, if you are trickle charging for long periods of time, if you go through complete discharge at a high rate, fairly rate, on the following cycles you will have recovered most of -- you don't lose ampere-hours, you seem to lose voltage. This is what is indicative of our test results and this is recoverable by reconditioning.

CARR: (Eagle Picher) If Don Mains is here, he reported also that they showed loss. I was wondering if he had more data?

FORD: NASA-Goddard) I agree with Jim that it is not a capacity -- ampere-hour capacity loss, but you are dealing with a watt loss per unit time or watt-hour loss and this is because you observe a lower voltage characteristic initially on discharge and you also get a second plateau about 105 to 108 volts and we have seen as much as 60 percent of the actual capacity on a Gulton 12 ampere-hour cell.

We actually obtained 15 ampere-hours of capacity out of this cell after over 18 months of trickle charge; but over 60 percent of that capacity was obtained below 1.1 volt.

One other comment: Steve Gaston yesterday showed some trenddin overcharge voltage characteristics. We are looking at this in a little more detail and as most of you are familiar, when you overcharge a cell at low temperature at low rates you get at normal charge voltage a peak voltage and you get a plateau voltage. One of the things we are

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al Reporters, Inc. observing now is the first obvious change in the overcharge characteristics is the peak. You will, typically, on a new cell, referring to a 20 ampere-hour type cell, see a peak early in life of about 150 to 151 with a plateau voltage after four or five hours of overcharge of about 149 to 148.5.

But you see, and we have seen this within six months, that the peak voltage will to about 154 or 155 indicating the peak voltage has changed as much as 60 to 70 millivolts; whereas, the plateau voltage which, again, out in the overcharge region has only changed about 10 millivolts.

When you observe this over a period of time, if you continue to look for this through periodic overcharges of 4 to 6 hours, what we normally run, you see that the plateau voltage then starts rising and eventually you get to a point where you peak the voltage and you don't see a plateau. And at this point is when we have observed that you begin to get some hydrogen generation.

I have seen the contrary to this on one test where we had cell voltages as high as 162 with a C over 40 overcharge at zero and we stayed there for 8 hours and never got any hydrogen.

HALPERT: Ed, do you want to answer that?

GASTON: (Grumman) I just want to extend myvyesterday's paper on the effect of aging. The only change in the whole 750 days which we have seen in characteristics are

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the overcharge characteristics. The charge and discharge profiles are the same. I certainly don't see the double plateau effect which shows the presence of carbonate.

I just wanted to mention that.

HALPERT: On the same subject? Gross?

GROSS: (Boeing) Earl Carr asked a question on the effects of trickle charging on the positive. There is a well-documented test information in the literature showing that you can get definite positive electrode degredation with trickle charge.

It is also well known that trickle charge, especially if the rates are high, can contribute to flaking off and blistering of those positive electrodes. In addition there is a mechanism of a higher valence which can be obtained which is available as a capacity but only at very low discharge rates.

CARR: Eagle Picher) Again, going into this situation where, -- I am concerned about this irreversible or not irreversible --

HALPERT: Temporary reversible --

CARR: Maybe. I am serious. This is interesting because based on what we have discussed here, it seems to me that we can get the capacity back; for example, if we are concerned with large crystals of inactive cadmium-hydroxide, we go to a long-term, low-rate trickle charge. Now if we have

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capacity loss due long-term trickle charge, we go to a conditioning procedure of handscharge rate and high charge rates.

I cannot remember reading where anybody has done this. Maybe truly we can recondition these batteries.

DUNLAP: Just one quick comment. There is this carbonage buildup probably enhanced by trickle charge. This is all 1 want to say.

(Laughter.)

HALPERT: Okay. I have got to give Ed his chance.

MC HENRY: (Bell Labs) On the subject of the capacity fading and the material that you cannot charge back up or can discharge, I found that if you make a powdered cadmium electrode, it has not capacity at all. You have finely divided cadmium powder but you cannot discharge it.

If you make cadmium-oxide electrodes, you can charge it up with 100 percent efficiency, but when you try to discharge it you only get about 80 percent back.

Now, it seems to me that you are stuck with some cadmium you can't dischage. I also have taken these things and dissolved them in dilute sulfuric acid which very rapidly dissolves cadmiumbut it doesn't bother nickel, not particularly, and besides I weight the plaque afterward to find out if I lost any nickel.

I get a great deal of hydrogen. You put this in a

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little gas buret and you catch all the hydrogen that comes off and the amount of hydrogen that you get just about matches the capacity you didn't get.

On top of that Dean has just told us how you can cook the dying electrode in oxygen and then you can charge it back up and you get all kinds of -- you know, it now charges a great deal more to hydrogen evolution than it did before; so apparently you have oxidized some of the cadmium. You cannot oxidize cadmium-hydroxide.

If you have oxidized cadmium, it was because it was cadmium and not cadmium-hydroxide. It must have been there as metal. You heat it in oxygen, wet oxygen, and you now oxidize it, and you can use it again. Of course, it fades very quickly afterward but it seems to me that you can get cadmium which cannot be oxidized. I think you can also get cadmium-hydroxide that will not reduce, but I think the metallic cadmium that apparently is isolated or something from the metal structure is a problem.

It is not a case of only cadmium-hydroxide which is inactive.

HALPERT: Does anybody else want to comment about a particular subject.

I think at this particular point -- okay, Dean Maurer.

MAURER: (Bell Labs) On the matter of long-term

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trickle charge being detrimental, I think that this has gotten to be taken slightly out of context.

What was said, as I remember it, was that two groups of cells, one which was left on open circuit and one which was trickle-charged for a year, when tested, acceptance tested at the end of this time, the ones on long-term over-charge showed lower capacity than those that were left on open circuit.

Now part of this could be simply that the ones on long-term tovercharge had been working and so you are seeing a wear-out; whereas, the ones on open circuit were simply standing idle. So part of this can simply be attributed to the working of the cell; that is useful performance of the cell versus a real difference in characteristic, if you follow what I mean.

At the end of this period of time one group of cells is essentially unaged; they have been sitting on the shelf; and the other group has seen a year's work.

CARR: (Eagle Picher) But they all have the same amount of material in them that they had in the beginning. What is the way out?

MAURER: (Bell) I agree the wear-out has taken place.

CARR: Yes. What is it?

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FLEISCHER: (Consultant) A long time ago I trickle charged a 40 ampere-hours sintered plate battery which had string separators so that it had no cellulose in it. It was fully flooded. The trickle-charge voltage was 1.40 and it was kept that way for a year.

The trickle-charge current was somewhere around 10 milliamperes. It actually generated gas which was equivalent — the gas was measured and the overall gas at the end of one year was about 20 percent of the theoretically expected amount of hydrogen and oxygen.

At the end of the year, the cell was discharged and it gave a capacity of 44 ampere-hours instead of the 40 ampere-hours which it gave on numerous cycles prior to the time it went on trickle charge.

It never went back to 44; after that it cycled again at 40 ampere-hours. But I want to call your attention to the fact that in the flooded state the trickle charge voltage is 1.40 and this is also a high value for the pocket-type electrode which has electrolyte that has a density of 1.20 to 1.23; so we have a very high trickle-charge voltage on these cells, way above where they ought to be for sintered-plate batteries.

HALPERT: Can I ask for the record what it should be for sintered-plate batteries?

FLEISCHER: With a flooded cell I said it was 1.40. HALPERT: Okay.

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LACKNER: (Canadian Defense Research Labs) (DRE Canada) We have gone over the long-rate trickle charge and the fading. We have had some experience with that and we have said that it is not irreversible, that you can get back to capacity.

Dean Maurer said that the cells that have been on trickle charge for a long period of time were working. These cells were not working. You were overchanging them but if you really want to exercise them, at periodic intervals you should discharge the cells down to at least one volt or less and the periodic interval should be about three months.

And then you will really be -- when you work a cell you discharge it and charge it. The ni-cad system is noted for being able to work many cycles of long life, so it should not have a wear-out.

HALPERT: Dr. Will?

MAURER: Can I answer that?

HALPERT: All right.

MAURER: (Bell) A battery in a reserve mode, like a night watchman, sits around and waits for something to happen; and in that context the battery in reserve operation on trickle charge can be working.

(Laughter.)

WILL: (G.E.) We seem to be agreeing more and more that trickle charge may be detrimental to the nickel plate, to the positive plate, and that it may not be detrimental at all;

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it may be in fact beneficial to the negative plate.

I would like to amplify on that latter point once more in saying that what one is doing with trickle charging the negative plate is to cathodically protect the negative plate and thereby not allow dissolution and the dissolution is obviously the major mechanism causing the fading of the negative plate.

I would, therefore, like then to pose the question to the experts on the positive plate, and would challenge them in coming up with some possible mechanisms of failure modes of positive due to the trickle charge.

HALPERT: Dr. Himy down here has a comment. I hope you are going to answer it.

HIMY: (McDonnell) I want to go back to the problem of carbonate built up in the cell. If part of the problem in fading or otherwise in nickel-cadmium cells is due to concentration of carbonate build-up, due probably to the decay of organic membrane, whether they are cellulose-zinc or nylon, it just seems natural to go back to inorganic membranes.

It is not the cell's fault here, I tested some cells of silver-cadmium with inorganic materials and I cannot say I noticed any fading because the cell was designed with excess negative ratio, negative to positive ratio, as usual.

The cells have so far reached 6,000 cycles at 40 percent depth of discharge and are still going strong, so

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I couldn't say, really, if there is any fading; that means it it probably still above the level of the 1 to 1 ratio.

STEINHAURER: (Hughes) I would like to comment in reinforcement of some of Jim Dunlop's statements.

We have been running parallel testing on the IntelSat-4 program and one of my colleagues, Al Heller, is on that program. In synchonous earch orbit we have 135 days' storage period between eclipse seasons and we have been through one eclipse season and one storage mode into the second eclipse season and we may be a little farther along than that, I am not sure.

The point is that that satellite has several —
three modes of charge where we could trickle charge if we
wanted. The results on trickle charge indicate some of the
things that Floyd has pointed out and that Jim has pointed
out, namely, that you get a voltage drop in the voltage curve
versus run time or ampere-hours.

We haven't seen it plateau out yet; just a soft knee, but this is recoverable by a big discharge down to about somewhere in the range of 120, 115 volts per cell, and we have seen this on other programs, so it is apparently recoverable.

HALPERT: Is anyone going to comment about the positive electrode, Dr. Will's question? It would be kind of interesting here.

BEAUCHAMP: (BTL) I presented just a little data

deral Reporters, Inc. yesterday on trickle charge of six months at 50 degrees F. and there was no second plateau. I got full capacity out of the cells. At higher temperatures we started to see an initial plateau.

I don't know the answer to Earl's question, whether it is the negative or the positive, since we didn't have reference electrodes in the cells. It was my thought though that it was probably due to the negative plate on this long trickle charge, possible growing larger cadmium crystals.

The positive plate, I think, if you do X-ray difraction work, is very amorphous, very small crystals; so I have no direct measurement but I just think it negative.

DUNLOP: (COMSAT) Whose cells were they?

BEAUCHAMP: The data was marked on those graphs

yesterday; I forget exactly whose were different temperatures.

I think I had three manufacturers and I would have to go back

and really go through the data to say whose cells did what.

We have tested Eagle Picher, Gulton and G.E. cells.

HALPERT: Okay, any other comments? Dean?

MAURER: (Bell) I would like to comment on the peak you see in the charging curve.

This peak is a function of the cell design; cells can be designed and, in fact, some commercial manufacturers produce cells that have no peak on the charge curve, the transition from charge to overcharge shows no peak. This, in

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fact, was part of the controversy over the various rapid charging systems that were ballyhooed six months or a year ago that depended on increase in voltage to turn the rapid charge off.

Some manufacturers' cells do not have this peak.

The peak results from the effect of oxygen being generated at the positive electrode near the end of charge. The first thing this oxygen does is increase pressure in the cell.

It comes out through the separator, fills the void spaces, and increases in pressure.

Finally it gets to the negative electrode where it depolarizes it. The voltage of the topple voltage of the cadmium electrode is a function of the oxygen pressure and as the oxygen pressure goes up the cadmium voltage goes down so that the first thing you see as you reach near the end of charge is the voltage in the cell goes up because both electrodes are reaching higher states of charge. And then as the pressure increases in the void spaces of the cell, the voltage starts to drop back down again and eventually reaches an equalibrium condition where the recombination rate on the negative electrode equals the charging rate. And at that point pressure rise stops and the voltage stabilizes.

Just as an example, a cell with a larger void volume would probably have a bigger peak than a cell with a smaller void volume. Also, a cell that has a negative that is

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inherently faster at recombination, will have a lower charging peak or maybe no peak at all, than an electrode which is less efficient at recombination.

I want to emphasize that the recombination rate is always the same because we are in an equalibrium condition, a closed system. The recombination rate always equals the charge *ate after you have once gotten into the overcharge region.

Your comment was that a cell which initially had one type of voltage peak after aging, now had a new type could be explaned by some of these cadmium specie migrations that we have been discussing here. If, for example, the pores of the negative electrode became clogged at the surface because of cadmium, cadmium-hydroxide, or cadmium-carbonate accmulation there -- and many of us have seen that in cells that have been dismantled -- there is a lot of material on the surface of these plates -- then the recombination rate on those electrodes is very likely -- sorry, the recombination efficiency is likely to be poorer because the pores are now blocked.

Then you would expect that you would see a higher peak in a cell of that sort than you would without the pores being clogged.

FORD: It might make you feel better, one of the characteristics that has been observed in the cell under the same overcharge condition is that comparing the early life with

the later life, and we are talking about 3,000 cycles now, at
a temperature of about 55 degrees F. The steady state overcharge pressure is built up about 20 to 30 percent. But one
thing that puzzles me about this, and statistically we don't
have that many numbers, but the numbers we do have where we have
gotten into a very unusual high voltage characteristic, and run
the wet plate test on the cells, we have always found or
found a correlation with the fact -- well, two things -- one
is that the positive plate capacity has increased and it is
increased because it is above what we know the positive plate
capacity of this plate lot was early in life; two, the negative

In some cases, and I think Gerry completed some work on the plates from these cells, we find ratios of about 1.1 to 1; and we find ratios of 1.0 to 1, and we have even had ratios -- negative ratios if you want to call it that -- but I realize there are probably other factors like carbonate and

so forth that are giving us this problem.

plate Capacity is always very close to the positive plate

On the other hand, it always show up in tests that we know how to run, at least, the wet electrode capacity test, as low, negative capacity; and I am talking about a loss of cells that start off with a ratio of 1.40, 1.5 to 1, which means you have roughly about 40 ampere-hours of capacity in these cells after 3500 cycles now have 31-32 ampere-hours capacity.

capacity.

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eral Reporters, Inc. And I am not saying it cannot be recovered; I think maybe Gerry might comment on that because he has been running some individual plate tests on these type cells.

HALPERT: On those particular plates from those cells, we took two cells from the group that have been cycled for six months, as Floyd said, and two that have not been, and took representative plates from both groups.

Just as he said, the electrochemical capacity of the positives was slightly higher and the electrochemical of the negatives was low by approximately 0.6 ampere hours out of 3.5 ampere hours per plate. And even though we gave them 75 percent overcharge in flooded condition, we could not get the capacity back out again. So it was not recoverable.

Maybe if we had done it at 5 C rate or something and discharged it, it might have happened differently; but it was obvious that the capacity was gone.

Now, whether that means that the chemical structure of the plate is different, has more cadmium than cadmium-hydroxide, or some other compound in which we have lost the weight, or whether it is actually material lost by going into the separator, I cannot determine at this point.

GROSS: (Boeing) Overcharging would take inactive cadmium and convert it into active cadmium; however, the cells are not made with great uniformity and are not made in a way

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that we can allow easy access of oxygen to the interior of the plate during overcharge; consequently, the overcharge reaction occurs preferentially on the outside exposed edges of the plates.

I would speculate that this would allow the inactive cadmium species in the interior of the plate to not get regenerated but I have no facts to go on. I wonder if anybody knows whether this is the case.

HALPERT: The plates that we looked at in that particular group were almost a clay-like structure covering the surface. We didn't go to very, very high magnification, but in the scanning electron microscope we couldn't see below the surface.

The covering was like a clay. Plates of the same type from the same batch that were put into the like cells and allowed to stand for the six months' period did have pretty open structure that we could see into. They had been given one or two cycles, the plates that had been standing and had gone through a manufacturer's testing program.

They were just set aside at that particular point and left. So, the fact that there was a covering indicates that it may have been a problem of oxygen getting into the inner area, if that is what you are saying.

GROSS: Well, I am commenting on the general question

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of what is the effect of trickle charge.

HALPERT: This didn't have anything to do with trickle charge, on the plates that Floyd was talking about; these were on continuous cycle for six months at Crane in a simulated 25 percent depth orbit.

My speculation is that trickle charge would not be fully effective in recoverng the lost capacity on the passivated cadmium. I am questioning whether anybody knows whether this is the case or not.

HALPERT: Dunlop?

I don't want to answer that question so I DUNLOP: will let somebody else have the floor.

HALPERT: Does anybody want to answer it? Dr. Will? It is true that the dissolution of the WILL: G.E.) cadmium-hydroxide crystals start at the pore mouth. It is also true that these big cadmium hydroxide crystals did originally block the pores. As soon as these crystals are dissolved the blockage stops and the field can penetrate farther into the pore and consequently the cadmium-hydroxide crystals further inside the pore finally also dissolve.

However, this is a slow process.

May I make one point on the gas evolution and the oxygen evolution in the overcharge mode?

This process is a diffusion limited process and the oxygen will not cause the potential of the cadmium electrode to

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drop. If anything, as the pressure rises of the oxygen in the sealed cell, the potential of the cadmium electrode is going to become more positive. It is bound to happen; there is no other possibility.

MAURER: We don't see that in practice.

WILL: Then there must be a different reason for it. (Laughter)

HALPERT: We have a small disagreement over here.

DUNLOP: (COMSAT) I just want to go back and ask a question about your work there, Gerry.

When you observed the loss in capacity, did you go through a chemical analysis on the plates?

HALPERT: Yes, we did go through extraction, samples taken from the same lot before they were cycled. After we removed them and cycled them, we took sample plates, then we did a chemical extraction and electrochemical testing.

DUNLOP: Were you able to determine whether your problem was charging the cadmium or discharging the cadmium?

If you did both electrochemical and chemical analyses, you should have been able to determine if it was one or both.

HALPERT: No, the capacity was significantly reduced about 0.6 ampere hours out of 3.5 ampere hours.

DUNLOP: I understand that, but was it the fact
that you couldn't discharge it, with the metallic cadmium there
you could not discharge at a useful rate or you couldn't

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discharge or you could not charge the cadmium hydroxide?

HALPERT: We charged at 75 percent overcharge and we could not get the capacity out of plates that were in the same line, operated at the same time, from the new cell.

DUNLAP: I understand you did not get the capacity out.

HALPERT: Yes.

DUNLAP: Now, I am asking you the question, was it the fact that you could not charge it or the fact that you could not discharge it? Do you know?

HALPERT: I really don't remember. It was done elsewhere. I don't remember the numbers. Don. would you happen to remember the numbers offhand?

VOICE: I cannot remember them.

HALPERT: Okay, I don't have the numbers with me.

I cannot remember that.

DUNLAP: This really is a rather important point because there is a lot to do with this whole business of pre-charging and everything else. You really ought to find out whether it is a problem of being able to charge the cadmium or whether it is a problem of being able to discharge the cadmium. And if you do a complete analysis, you know, this is the point that we were making yesterday in the paper: If you do go to an analysis where you do both an electrochemical and a chemical analysis of your plate, then you can, indeed,

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HALPERT: Lackner?

determine which problem you are having, if you are losing utilization of the plate, whether it is a problem of charging the plates or a problem of discharging the plates.

> HALPERT: These data are available.

CARR: (Eagle Picher) There is a third possibility. That is whether it is there or not.

DUNLAP: He mentioned a loss of weight. I agree, but he mentioned a loss of weight of about 25 percent. He mentioned a loss of capacity of about 50 percent, so there was a loss of capacity which exceeded the loss in weight that he mentioned. As I understood it, I may be wrong there.

STEINHAUER: (Hughes) Maybe we shouldn't get into this question, but --

(Laughter.)

STEINHAUER: -- there has been the point made of surface charge versus diffusing the charge into the plate. There are several people in the room, I think, that have done pulse charging but more particularly I would like to direct my questiog toward pulse trickle charging. I believe the Canadians', Army Electronics and perhaps Utah Research have some work on this.

Can we live with the cells as they stand with the carbonate? Does the capacity and voltage hold up under pulse trickle charging over a long time?

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LACKNER: (Canadian Defense Research Labs) I imagine that question was directed to me, wasn't it?

Are there any other Canadians here?

(Laughter.)

LACKNER: We have done tests on pulse trickle charging and pulse high-rate charging; and we have found that if you charge at a high rate you get better charge efficiency. I believe this was already known.

If you pulse charge at a high rate, and then when you get into the overcharge period, which would normally be your trickle charge, if you then still pulsed at a high rate but a low average charge rate -- in other words you spread out your pulses -- you could maintain the capacity for a long period of time on the order of a year.

We have done this on standby emergency lighting units. We still feel that you have to exercise the battery because if you continue it in one mode, it develops a certain condition and I hate to mention the word memory --

(Laugher.)

LACKNER: -- How it develops this condition I won't enter into it. I believe Dr. Will has exhausted that topic.

But you have to prevent it from getting into a certain mode, so you do have to exercise it.

what the pulse does, it exercises it to a certain extent.

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Reporters, Inc. HALPERT: Let me make a point here.

We ought to be finishing up in the next five or ten minutes. I know some of you still have to travel this evening so --

BOYD: (Utah Research) We have been pulse charging about five or six years now, approximately. We have been noticing something occurring. We have not done a lot of trickle charging, so I cannot answer all of your questions, but we have noted if a battery cellaisafaded, caused by a short -- cycle, the pulse charge does remarkably well in restoring capacity.

But if, on the other hand, it is caused by a deep cycle or a heavy cycle, then we don't do as well. We have to have this periodic recycling down to zero or 1 volt per cell.

Most of our work has been on the vented ? cells so we haven't got a lot of history on the sealed type cell.

By the way, we also should make a comment that the type of pulse is very critical. If you have a high peak of average ratio, then you do have some degradation caused by heating the cell; but if you maintain say a 2 or 3 times the average peak ratio, then you do very well. So all of these things must be considered.

We have about five different typescofe by a compute pulse charges we built currently, one of which has a burst effect wherein we have, I believe it is a six peaks per burst

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at the actual frequency of input voltage, and this does very well. But as we go to a single pulse and have a very high ratio we only have degradation occurring, so some caution must be used in pulse charging. But it is also very beneficial.

MAURER: (Bell) I would like to make a few comments about this and the negative electrode.

First of all, the negative electrode potential is a mixed potential. It consists of the hydrogen potential, the cadmium potential and the oxygen potential. Relative to a mercury reference, the oxygen potential is positive; the cadmium potential is negative by about .9 volts or something of that sort; and hydrogen potential is negative by about 1.1 volts.

This potential is mixed which means that in any given situation all three reactions can occur. So the presence of oxygen will tend to make the potential go more positive than it would if it were not in the presence of hydrogen the other way. So in an overcharging electrode one would expect that the oxygen would depress the negative potential, that is, make it more positive than it was in the first place, which tends to decrease the voltage.

The other point I wanted to make was that pulse trickle charging -- I have no experience with this per se, but I do have some experience with what we call interrupted overcharge, and this is definitely detrimental to the cell when

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the interruption is of an order of time comparable to the time it takes the oxygen pressure — that is, the equalibrium oxygen pressure on overcharge — to decay to appreciably lower values. When charge is returned and after this period of time ocygen is not present so the inherent potential of the negative electrode is higher and you tend to generate hydrogen, so that if you interrupt an overcharge, specially at low temperatures, for periods of time let's say on the order of 15 minutes to an hour, you will get appreciatble quantities of hydrogen when the charge is started again.

If the interruption is of short duration, in seconds or minutes, there is no appreciable effect,

CARR: What rate?

MAURER: C over 20.

at the IEEE, I published a paper there on the pulse-charging work that we did for about a year and a half or so in the labs. What we did, we took a group of third ? electrode cells, either third electrode for charge control, and we took two packs and we pulse-charged one pack and we constant-current charged another pack at the same average rate. And we tried different duty cycles on the pulse rate -- 10 percent, 15 percent, 20 percent and so forth. We tried different rates, C over 5 average, C over 10, C over 20.

In all that work, and you can find that reference,

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it took the same amount of time, using the same average current, to charge a cell up whether you do it with pulse charging or whether you do it with constant-current charging at the same average rate.

This is an ampere-hour charge efficiency that I am talking about. You don't improve the ampere-hour charge efficiency.

For the 900 cycles that we ran, wherein we were using, # believe it was, a C over 25 percent duty cycle and an average C over 10 charge rate, we used an 80 percent depth of discharge, we had the same basically at the end of the 700 or 800 cycles, whatever it was, the discharge characteristics of both packs looked almost identical. We reconditioned both packs and they still looked almost identical.

So, for that period of time, we were not able to determine that there was either an advantage or a disadvantage to the pulse charge.

HALPERT: Boyd, Utah?

BOYD: (Utah Research) We have seen much the same thing, except in some cases. We have noticed, by taking some cells a degrading of perhaps 30 to 40 percent. In some cases the first charge cycle with pulsation they recover completely. With constant current that isn't true; however, there are some cases where neither recover; either pulsa or constant current. And, again, we find a correlation, basically first with the pulsa

wave itself.

If we hold the pulse peak constant, at the duty cycle, then we don't have any improvement. But if we vary the peak and the duty cycle both, we do find improvement occurring.

And then, secondly, as I mentioned before, if the fading is caused by shallow cycling, then we have good results. But if it is caused by deep cycling or heated cells, there is no recovery.

HALPERT: At this point I might say that we have had a very productive session. I think we have covered some of the areas that Chuck McKenzie suggested we cover back in his beginning keynote address, and I hope that all of you have enjoyed it and gotten something out of it.

We hope to have the proceedings back to you in as short a time as possible, on the order of three weeks to a month. And I hope that all the slides will be in so that we will have them to accompany it.

I do want to make mention of the fact that we have had some foreign visitors with us here today and yesterday —— Drs. Font and Perrachon from SAFT sitting right over here; and in the back row we have Ferguson from Canadian Arsenals and Stott from Telesat, Canada; and you have met Joe Lackner of Canadian Defense Research Labs. We are very happy to have had them come down and visit with us.

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